

TOM VELDKAMP

**QUATERNARY RIVER TERRACE FORMATION IN THE ALLIER
BASIN, FRANCE.**

a reconstruction based on sand bulk geochemistry and 3-D modelling.

CENTRALE LANDBOUWCATALOGUS



0000 0456 8479

BIBLIOTHEEK
LANDBOUWUNIVERSITEIT
WAGENINGEN

Promotor: Dr. S.B. Kroonenberg
Hoogleraar in de geologie en mineralogie

NN08201, 1462

A. Veldkamp

**QUATERNARY RIVER TERRACE FORMATION IN THE ALLIER
BASIN, FRANCE.**

a reconstruction based on sand bulk geochemistry and 3-D
modelling.

Proefschrift

Ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor
in de landbouw- en milieuwetenschappen
op gezag van de rector magnificus,
dr. H.C. van der Plas,
in het openbaar te verdedigen
op woensdag 18 december 1991
des middags te half twee in de Aula
van de Landbouwuniversiteit te Wageningen.

ISN: 551166.

60951

"Niet alle tijdgenoten bewonen dezelfde tijd. Het verleden verandert voortdurend, maar slechts weinigen beseffen dat."

"In mijn hele heelal heb ik nooit een onverbiddelijke onveranderlijke natuurwet aangetroffen. Dit heelal vertoont uitsluitend veranderende verhoudingen die soms door een kort-levende bewustzijn als wetten worden gezien."

De gestolen verslagen van Leto II Atreides, in: God emperor of Dune, F. Herbert, 1981.

Op de voorkant van dit proefschrift staat een kopie van de oudste kaart van het studiegebied (Limage). Deze werd gemaakt in 1560 door Florentin Simeoni.

Aan mijn ouders en Marga

NN08201, 1962

STELLINGEN

- 1 Met bulkgeochemische karakterisering van fluviatiele sedimenten kunnen geochemische en fluviatiele processen kwantitatief en statistisch verantwoord worden gereconstrueerd.
Dit Proefschrift
Kroonenberg, S.B., Moura, M.L. & Jonker, A.T.J., 1988, Geochemistry of the sands of the Allier river terraces, French Massif Central, Geologie en Mijnbouw 66:297-311.
- 2 Geomorfologische processen kunnen beschrijvend worden gesimuleerd met behulp van 'finite state modelling'.
Dit Proefschrift
- 3 De aanwezigheid van vruchtbare landbouwgronden ('terre noire' Gachon, 1963) in de Limagne is het indirekte gevolg van deglaciatie gedurende het Laat Pleniglaciaal.
Dit Proefschrift
Gachon, L., 1963, Contribution à l'étude du Quaternaire récent de la Grande Limagne marnocalcaire: morphogenèse et pédogenèse, Annales agronomiques, vol 14, no hors série 1.
- 4 Het alluviaal-stratigrafisch model van Bridge & Leeder (1979) zou realistischer zijn als het rekening hield met fluviatiele versnijding als gevolg van opheffing.
Dit Proefschrift
Bridge, J.S. & Leeder M.R., 1979, A simulation model of alluvial stratigraphy, Sedimentology, 26:617-644
- 5 Aangezien de kennis omtrent de Kwartaire dynamiek van het klimaat veel nauwkeuriger is dan die van de tektoniek, vormt de laatste de meest beperkende factor voor realistische modellering van terrasvorming.
Dit Proefschrift
- 6 De uitgestrekte Keniaanse planatievlakken zijn niet gevormd door pediplanatie-processen zoals beschreven door L.C. King, (1962).
King, L.C., 1962, The morphology of the earth. Oliver and Boyd, London.
- 7 Doordat er steeds meer bodemkundig onderzoek plaatsvindt zonder of met te weinig veldwerk, bestaat het gevaar dat bodemkundigen steeds meer moeite hebben om op verschillende schaalnivo's 4-D te denken.

- 8 Zowel de informatica als de statistiek zijn slechts werktuigen binnen de geowetenschappen, iets wat steeds meer collega's lijken te vergeten.
- 9 Miall's omschrijving (1983) van de ideale fluviatiele specialist van de jaren tachtig als: 'A Quaternary sedimentologist with experience in petroleum geology and river engineering, a passion for hydraulics, statistics and scuba diving, a more than passing interest in tectonics and a lot of money for coring equipment, combined with a good knowledge of biostratigraphy, palaeomagnetism, geochemistry, petrology, pedology, palaeoclimatology and structural geology" is toch nog incompleet voor de jaren negentig door de opkomst van modellering als onderzoekstechniek.
Miall, A.D., 1983, Basin analysis of fluvial sediments. Spec. Publs Int. Ass. Sediment. 6: 279-286.
- 10 Judo is de weg naar het doeltreffendst gebruik van zowel lichamelijke als geestelijke kracht.
Jigoro Kano
- 11 Op een geologische tijdschaal gezien is het menselijk gedrag en handelen net zo voorspelbaar als dat van iedere andere levensvorm, omdat het voortbestaan van de soort de belangrijkste drijfveer is.
- 12 Lood zal een nog groter milieuprobleem worden in Frankrijk zolang de Fransen hun uitgesproken voorkeur behouden voor wijndrinken, jagen en autorijden.
- 13 Het is onwaarschijnlijk dat het huidige plateau van Gergovie ook daadwerkelijk de plaats is waar Julius Ceasar in 52 AD door de Galliers is verslagen.

Stellingen behorende bij het proefschrift van A. Veldkamp:
Quaternary river terrace formation in the Allier basin, France: a reconstruction based on sand bulk geochemistry and 3-D modelling.

VOORWOORD

Met dit proefschrift worden vier interessante jaren bijna volledig gewijd aan onderzoek bekroond. Natuurlijk staan die vier jaar niet los van de voorafgaande 24 jaren in mijn leven. Ik wil dan ook allereerst mijn ouders bedanken voor hun stimulering gedurende mijn studie. Met name mijn middelbare schooltijd heeft hun helaas meer dan alleen voldoening geschenken. Vervolgens wil ik al die mensen bedanken die een rol hebben gespeeld in mijn wetenschappelijke ontwikkeling en niet hieronder worden genoemd. Het in dit proefschrift beschreven onderzoek is het resultaat van een gezamelijke inspanning wat tot uitdrukking komt in de namen van de co-auteurs van de opgenomen publicaties en manuscripten.

Salle Kroonenberg wil ik bedanken voor de grote vrijheid die hij mij gaf bij de invulling en uitvoering van het onderzoek. Zijn aanstekelijk enthousiasme en optimisme heb ik altijd als stimulerend ervaren.

Ik ben Mario Moura zeer erkentelijk want het was hij die mij heeft ingewerkt op het gebied van de zandgeochemie. Verder heb ik met veel plezier samen gewerkt met Toine Jongmans, Tom Feijtel, Igor Staritsky, Ab Jonker, Piet Oosterom, Alfred Stein, Ed Meijer en Nico van Breemen binnen het kader van het VF project Frankrijk (VF86-09 en VF89-71). Binnen dit project hebben vele studenten in de Limagne hun veldwerk uitgevoerd ik wil met name Paul Römkens, Loes Janssen en Margot Spreuwenberg bedanken voor hun bijdrage aan het geochemische onderzoek. Tijdens mijn veldwerk heb nuttige assistentie gehad van mijn broer Ed en niet te vergeten mijn ouders welke niet te beroerd waren om vele zandmonsters te zeven.

Ton Engelsma wil ik bedanken voor het gedogen van mijn labatorium aktiviteiten en Bram Kuijper en Jan Huiting voor het uitvoeren van de XRF analyses van mijn 500 zandmonsters. Jan van Doesburg was altijd bereid om van een onbekende mineraal een röntgendiffractogram te maken. In ben J. van der Plicht en Henk Heijnis van de Rijksuniversiteit Groningen erg erkentelijk voor het zorgdragen voor de ^{14}C en Th/U dateringen. Antje Weitz heeft zowel de Zusammenfassung als enige tekeningen gemaakt. Piet Versteeg en andere medewerkers van de tekenkamer Biotechnion

worden hartelijk bedankt voor het maken van de vele figuren in dit proefschrift. Verder wil ik mijn (ex)kameraden, medekoffiedrinkers en andere collega's bedanken voor de prettige en informele sfeer.

Stephan Vermeulen ben ik veel dank verschuldigd voor het mede ontwikkelen van het eerste rivierterrassen model gedurende de eindfase van onze studie. Waarbij we zeer plezierige begeleiding hebben gehad van Prof. Dr. A.J. Udink ten Cate en Prof. Ir M.S. Elzas van de vakgroep informatica. Gerda Lenselink en Meindert van den Berg zijn voor mij zeer plezierige collega's die altijd open staan voor diepgaande vakinhoudeijke discussies.

Jannick Legeat is thanked for his enthusiastic support and interest in my research in the Limagne.

Het Sportinstituut Wageningen wil ik danken voor de mogelijkheden om mijn agressie op een gekontroleerde manier te kunnen afreageren.

De Vakgroep Bodemkunde en Geologie wordt bedankt voor het beschikbaar stellen van een stationeringsplaats, ondanks beginproblemen heb ik mijn stationeringsperiode toch als prettig ervaren.

De gepresenteerde onderzoeken werden gesteund door de Stichting Aardwetenschappelijk Onderzoek Nederland (AWON) met subsidie van de Nederlandse organisatie voor zuiver Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek (NWO), (Project no 751.358.009, Geochemie en sedimentpetrografie van rivierafzettingen in de Limagneslenk Centraal Massief, Frankrijk).

Totslot wil ik Marga mijn vrouw bedanken voor het regelmatig willen lezen, meedenken en aanhoren van mijn hersenspinsels.

PUBLICATIONS

The chapters 2.2 through 4.2 were of will be published as separate papers, with some modifications. These papers have been adapted and slightly revised to fit the format of this thesis. The following papers form the basis of this thesis:

2.2: Veldkamp, A. & Kroonenberg, S.B., (subm). The Late Quaternary terrace chronology of the Allier (Limagne, France). *Quaternaire*.

2.3: Veldkamp, A., & Jongmans, A.G., (subm). Trachytic pumice clasts in Middle Pleistocene Allier terrace deposits (Limagne, France): A chronostratigraphical marker. *Quaternaire*.

3.1: Veldkamp, A., & Kroonenberg S.B., (in press) The application of bulk sand geochemistry in Quaternary research. A methodological study of the Allier and Dore terrace sands (Limagne, France). *Applied Geochemistry*.

3.2: Veldkamp, A., & Feijtel, T.C., (in press) Parent material controlled subsoil weathering in the Allier terraces (Limagne, France). *Catena*.

3.3: Veldkamp, A. & Staritsky, I.G., (in press) Spatial variability in fluvial terrace sand composition at the Allier/Dore confluence (Limagne, France). *Geomorphology*.

3.4: Veldkamp, A., (subm) Climate controlled sediment fluxes in the Allier basin (Limagne, France) during the Late Quaternary. *Quaternary Research*.

4.1: Veldkamp, A., & Vermeulen, S.E.J.W., 1989, River terrace formation, modelling and 3-D graphical simulation. *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*. Vol 14, 641-654.

4.2: Veldkamp, A., (in press). A 3-D model of fluvial terrace development in the Allier basin (Limagne, France). *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*.

SUMMARY

The research presented in this thesis is focussed on a quantitative reconstruction of the effects of past environmental dynamics within a fluvial system. The study area is part of the Allier basin (Limagne) in the Auvergne, Massif Central, France.

The research was carried out in several stages. At first field work was carried out to determine the terrace stratigraphy and chronology in more detail. A new age estimate of the Fva (65 m above present river bed) is based on pumice clasts found in the terrace sediments. Younger terraces were dated with ^{14}C and Th/U disequilibrium methods. Fx terrace sediments (15 and 10 m above present river bed) were mainly deposited during the Late Weichselian, while the Fwb terrace sediments (25 m above present river bed) have most probably a Late Saalian age. Due to these new age estimates a revision of the existing Allier terrace chronology is necessary. This new chronology shows a large time gap between the deposition of the Fv and Fw terrace sediments.

Next, sands of various terrace units were collected and bulk geochemically measured with XRF. This bulk geochemical research allowed a statistically significant discrimination of different terrace levels. The processes which shape and shaped the actual sand geochemistry were successfully quantified. It was found that grain size has only a very limited effect on bulk geochemical variability while longitudinal sorting processes and weathering have a stronger impact on actual sediment composition. Although the effects of parent material controlled weathering in the Allier sands were successfully modelled, the older terrace sediments are unsuitable for paleoenvironmental reconstructions. Such a reconstruction was done for the Weichselian and Holocene terrace deposits at the Allier/Dore confluence. The sediment mixing behaviour of these rivers is estimated by calculating sediment mixing ratios. This reconstruction started with an investigation of spatial mixing effects of Allier and Dore sediments in time by means of mapping and geostatistics. Results suggest an environmental

control over the spatial variability of sediment mixing at this confluence in time. The reconstructed relative sediment fluxes of the Allier in time show a good correspondence with known past environments. Relative Allier sediment fluxes seem mainly climate controlled whereby large fluvio-glacial fluxes at the end of a glacial played a dominant role in the Allier system. These large sediment fluxes in the Allier system caused a strong rise in the Allier riverbed level contributing to the development of lake basins (Marais) in Grande Limagne.

Further a large scale and long term model of terrace formation was constructed using finite state modelling. This methodology allows the construction of a general 3-D terrace formation model containing as well quantitative as qualitative knowledge on fluvial systems. Finally, an adapted version for the Allier (LIMTER) is made incorporating all present knowledge on this system. LIMTER allows the formulation and evaluation of long term terrace formation scenarios for the Allier system. Simulation results suggest that terrace stratigraphy in the study area is mainly the result of the internal Allier dynamics and climatic change. Local tectonism caused the development of unpaired terraces while the general regional uplift played a dominant role in terrace formation and preservation in general.

The terrace research as presented in this thesis shows that it is well possible for any fluvial system to simulate the interaction climate/tectonism and fluvial dynamics. The for the Allier simulated dynamics, net sedimentation during and at the end of a Glacial and net dissection during an Interglacial has no general validity.

SAMENVATTING

Het onderzoek dat in dit proefschrift wordt beschreven heeft als hoofddoel om een kwantitatieve reconstructie te maken van de gevolgen van veranderende milieu-omstandigheden gedurende het Kwartair in een riviersysteem. Het studiegebied is het Allierstroomgebied (de Limagne) gelegen in de Auvergne, Massif Central te Frankrijk.

Het onderzoek is gefaseerd uitgevoerd. Allereerst is er voornamelijk veldwerk uitgevoerd om de terrassenstratigrafie en hun ontstaansgeschiedenis beter uit te zoeken. Zo werd een nieuwe leeftijdsschatting voor het Fv-terras (65 m boven huidige rivier) verkregen door de vondst van een bepaald type puimsteen in de terrassedimenten. De jongere terrassen zijn radiometrisch gedateerd met behulp van de koolstof 14 methode en de Thorium/Uranium niet- evenwichtmethode. Zo weten we nu dat de Fx-terrassedimenten gelegen tussen de 15 en 10 m boven de huidige rivier, vooral tijdens het Laat Weichelien zijn afgezet, terwijl het Fwb terras (25 m boven de huidige rivier) zeer waarschijnlijk een Laat Saalien leeftijd heeft. Als gevolg van deze nieuwe dateringen werd een revisie van de bestaande Allier terrassenchronologie noodzakelijk. Deze nieuwe chronologie heeft een groot tijdsinterval tussen de afzetting van de Fv en Fw-terrassedimenten.

Vervolgens zijn de zanden van de verschillende terrassen en terraseenheden bemonsterd en geochemisch gemeten. Dit bulkgeochemisch onderzoek laat een statistisch significant onderscheid zien tussen de verschillende terrasnivo's. Bovendien zijn hiermee de processen die de actuele terraszandsamenstelling bepalen of bepaalden goed te kwantificeren. Het blijkt dat zandkorrelgrootte slechts een beperkte invloed heeft op de bulkgeochemische samenstelling terwijl stroomafwaardse sortering en verwering na afzetting een groter effect hebben of hadden op de huidige zandsamenstelling. Ondanks dat de verwering van de Allier terrassedimenten goed gemodelleerd kon worden, zijn de sedimenten van de oudere verweerde terrassen ongeschikt om milieuomstandigheden uit het verleden te reconstrueren. Een dergelijke reconstructie is wel gedaan aan

de Weichselien en Holocene sedimenten bij de samenvloeiing van Allier en Dore. Het sedimentmenggedracht van deze rivieren in het verleden is onderzocht door een zogenaamde sedimentmengratio te berekenen. Om deze reconstructie mogelijk te maken is eerst een onderzoek uitgevoerd naar de ruimtelijke variabiliteit van het sedimentmenggedrag met behulp van karteren en geostatistiek. De resultaten suggereren sterk dat ook de ruimtelijke variabiliteit van riversedimenten gerelateerd is aan de rivierdynamiek. De gereconstrueerde relatieve sedimentfluxen van de Allier correleren erg sterk met milieuveranderingen in het verleden. Vooral klimaatsveranderingen lijken de sedimentstromen in de Allier sterk te hebben bepaald. Grote fluvio-glaciale sedimentstromen aan het eind van een lange koude periode (Glaciaal) zijn erg dominant geweest in het Allier systeem. Een indirekt gevolg van deze grote sedimentstromen is het ontstaan van meerbekkens in de Limagne door een sterke stijging in beddinghoogte als gevolg van de grote sedimentaanvoer.

Vervolgens is een grootschalig lange termijn model gemaakt met behulp van 'finite state' modelleren dat terrasvorming driedimensionaal simuleert. Door 'finite state' modelleren kan een model worden gemaakt dat zowel beschrijvende als gemeten kennis bevat. Dit algemene model is vervolgens voor de Allier aangepast (LIMTER). LIMTER is een conceptueel model voor het opstellen en evalueren van terrasvormings-scenario's binnen het Allier systeem. Simulatieresultaten laten zien dat de terrasstratigrafie in het studiegebied voornamelijk het gevolg is van interne fluviatiele dynamiek en klimatologische veranderingen in de tijd. Lokale tektoniek veroorzaakte het ontstaan van ongepaarde terrassen terwijl de algemene regionale opheffing een dominante rol heeft gespeeld bij de conservering van terrassen in de tijd.

Het in dit proefschrift gepresenteerde terrasonderzoek laat zien dat het goed mogelijk is in een fluviatiel systeem de interactie klimaat/tektoniek en fluviatiele dynamiek semi-kwantitatief te reconstrueren. De voor de Allier gesimuleerde dynamiek van netto sedimentatie gedurende en aan het eind van een glaciaal gevolgd door netto interglaciale versnijding heeft geen algemene geldigheid.

RESUME

L'étude décrite dans cette thèse a pour objectif principal d'établir une reconstitution quantitative des conséquences dues aux changements climatiques durant le Quaternaire dans un bassin versant. La région étudiée est le bassin versant de l'Allier, la Limagne, située en Auvergne, dans le Massif Central.

L'étude a été effectuée en plusieurs phases. La première phase a été principalement une phase de travail sur le terrain, pour déterminer la stratigraphie des terrasses et la chronologie de leur formation. Une nouvelle estimation de l'âge de la terrasse Fv (65m au-dessus de la rivière actuelle) a pu être obtenue grâce à la découverte d'un certain type de pierre ponce dans les sédiments de la terrasse. Les terrasses plus récentes ont été datées par radiométrie à l'aide de la méthode du Carbone 14 et de celle du déséquilibre Thorium/Uranium. Nous savons ainsi que les sédiments de terrasses Fx qui se trouvent entre 10 et 15 m au-dessus de la rivière actuelle ont été déposés principalement vers la fin de la glaciation de Würm, alors que la terrasse Fwb (25 m au-dessus de la rivière actuelle) date très probablement de la fin de la glaciation du Riss. Cette nouvelle datation a nécessairement entraîné une révision de la chronologie existante des terrasses de l'Allier. La nouvelle chronologie révèle un grand intervalle entre les formations des sédiments des terrasses Fv et Fw.

Au cours de la deuxième phase, des échantillons des sables de différents groupes de terrasses ont été prélevés, et ont ensuite été soumis à une analyse géochimique. Cette analyse de l'ensemble des échantillons montre une différence statistique significative entre les différents niveaux de terrasses. En outre, elle permet de quantifier correctement les procédés qui déterminent ou ont déterminé la composition actuelle des sables des terrasses. Il s'avère que la grosseur des grains de sable n'a qu'une influence limitée sur la composition géochimique de l'ensemble des échantillons, alors que le tri et l'altération en aval qui se sont produits après la déposition, ont ou avaient plus d'effet sur la composition actuelle. S'il était tout à fait possible de

simuler l'altération des sédiments des terrasses de l'Allier, il s'avère que les sédiments de terrasses dégradées plus anciennes ne sont pas adaptés à la reconstitution des circonstances environnementales du passé. Une telle reconstitution a toutefois été exécutée pour les sédiments de la Glaciation de Würm et de l'Holocène déposés au confluent de l'Allier et de la Dore. Le schéma du mélange des sédiments de ces deux rivières dans le passé a été étudié en calculant ce qu'on appelle le taux de mélange des sédiments. Pour pouvoir effectuer cette reconstitution, il a d'abord fallu réaliser une étude de la variabilité spatiale du schéma de mélange des sédiments en s'aidant de la cartographie et de la géostatistique. Les résultats suggèrent que la variabilité spatiale des sédiments des rivières est liée à la dynamique de la rivière. La reconstitution des courants de sédiments relatifs de l'Allier montre une grande concordance avec les changements environnementaux du passé. Il semble que ce soient les changements climatiques qui aient principalement déterminé les courants de sédiments dans l'Allier. Dans le bassin de l'Allier, ce sont les grands courants de sédiments fluvio-glaciaires de la fin d'une longue période glaciaire qui ont été prédominants. Une conséquence indirecte de ces grands courants de sédiments est l'apparition de dépressions lacustres en Limagne due à une forte élévation du lit de la rivière résultant de l'important apport de sédiments.

Ensuite un modèle à long terme et à grande échelle a été élaboré à l'aide du modèle 'Finite State' pour la simulation en trois dimensions de la formation des terrasses. Grâce à cette méthode, il a été possible de créer un modèle qui pouvait inclure aussi bien les données descriptives que les données quantitatives. Ce modèle général a ensuite été adapté aux conditions de l'Allier (LIMTER). LIMTER permet la formulation et l'évaluation des scénarios de formation des terrasses de l'Allier. Les résultats de simulation montrent que la stratigraphie des terrasses de la région étudiée sont principalement la conséquence d'une dynamique fluviatile interne et de changements climatiques. La tectonique locale a occasionné l'apparition de terrasses non-couplées alors que le relèvement régional général a joué un rôle dominant dans la conservation des

terrasses à travers les âges.

La présente étude montre qu'il est tout à fait possible de reconstituer de façon semi-quantitative l'interaction entre climat/tectonique et dynamique fluviatile dans un système fluviatile. La dynamique, simulée ici pour l'Allier, de la sédimentation nette pendant et à la fin d'une période glaciaire, suivie de la dissection nette interglaciaire n'est pas valable dans tous les cas.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Die mit dieser Promotionsschrift vorgestellte Untersuchung beschäftigt sich mit der quantitativen Rekonstruktion der Auswirkungen während des Quartärs veränderter Umweltbedingungen auf ein fluviales System. Das Untersuchungsgebiet ist Teil des in der Auvergne gelegenen Allierbeckens (Limagne), Massif Central, Frankreich.

Die Untersuchung wurde in verschiedenen Phasen durchgeführt. Zuerst erfolgten Geländearbeiten, die eine detaillierte Bestimmung der Terassenstratigraphie und -chronologie ermöglichen. Eine neue Alterseinstufung der Fva(Fv)-Terasse (65 m über dem heutigen Flussniveau gelegen) konnte aus dem Fund eines bestimmten Bimssteintypes in den Terassensedimenten abgeleitet werden. Jüngere Terassen wurden radiometrisch mit Hilfe der ^{14}C - und der Thorium/Uranium-Ungleichgewichtsmethode datiert. Es konnte nachgewiesen werden, dass die Fx-Terassensedimente, die zwischen 10 und 15 m über dem heutigen Flussniveau liegen, hauptsächlich im Verlauf der späten Weichselvereisung abgelagert wurden. Dagegen lassen sich die Fwb-Terassensedimente, die 25 m über dem heutigen Flussniveau liegen, mit grösster Wahrscheinlichkeit als spät saaleeiszeitlich datieren. Auf Grund dieser neuen Datierungen wurde eine Revision der bestehenden Allierterassenchronologie notwendig. Die neue Chronologie zeigt eine grössere Zeitdifferenz zwischen der Absetzung der Fv- und der Fw-Terassensedimente.

Des Weiteren wurden Sandproben verschiedener Terassen und Terasseneinheiten gesammelt und mittels Röntgenfluoreszenzanalyse (RFA) geochemisch untersucht. Die Kenntnis der gesamten geochemischen Zusammenstellung der Sedimente erlaubt eine statistisch signifikante Unterscheidung der verschiedenen Terassenniveaus. Außerdem lassen sich hiermit die Prozesse, die die aktuelle Terassensedimentzusammenstellung bestimmen bzw. bestimmten, gut quantifizieren. Es zeigte sich, dass die Korngrösse der Sande nur begrenzten Einfluss auf deren gesamte geochemische Komposition hat, wogegen longitudinale Sortierungsprozesse und Verwitterung nach der Sedimentation grösseren Einfluss auf die heutige Sandzusammenstellung haben

bzw. hatten. Trotzdem der Verwitterungsverlauf der Allierterassensedimente gut modelliert werden konnte, eignen sich die Sedimente der älteren, verwitterten Terassen nicht, um die Paläomilieubedingungen zu rekonstruieren. Eine derartige Rekonstruktion erfolgte für die weichselzeitlichen und holozänen Terassenablagerungen des Allier/Dore Zusammenflusses. Das in der Vergangenheit gezeigte Sedimentmischungsverhalten dieser Flüsse wurde mittels Schätzung der Sedimentmischungsverhältnisse berechnet. Diese Rekonstruktion wurde durch eine Untersuchung der räumlichen Variabilität der Sedimentmischungseffekte der Allier und der Dore im Zeitverlauf ermöglicht. Dabei wurden Kartierungen und geostatistische Arbeitstechniken benutzt. Die Ergebnisse suggerieren, dass die räumliche Variabilität der Sedimentmischung im Zeitverlauf am Zusammenfluss stark von der zeitlichen Flussdynamik abhängig ist. Die rekonstruierten relativen Sedimentströme der Allier im Verlauf der Zeit korrespondieren gut mit bekannten Umweltdynamiken der Vergangenheit. Der relative Sedimentstrom in der Allier scheint stark von klimatischen Veränderungen bestimmt zu sein. Die am Ende langer Vereisungsperioden auftretenden, grossen fluvio-glazialen Sedimentströme spielen eine dominante Rolle im Alliersystem. Eine indirekte Folge dieser grossen Sedimentströme ist das Entstehen der Seenbecken (Marais) in der Limagne, die durch starke Steigung der Strombetthöhe infolge starker Sedimentanfuhr gebildet werden.

Weiterhin wurde ein grossmasstäbiges Langzeitmodell der Terassenbildung mit Hilfe des 'finite state' Modellierungsansatzes erstellt. Diese Methode erlaubte es, die Terassenbildung dreidimensional zu simulieren, wobei sowohl quantitative als auch qualitative Informationen über fluviatile Systeme verwendet werden. Im Anschluss daran wurde eine angepasste Version für das Alliersystem erstellt (LIMTER), dass alle verfügbare Information über dieses spezielle, fluviatile System enthält. Mit Hilfe von LIMTER können für das Alliersystem für lange Zeitspannen Terassenbildungsscenarios formuliert und evaluiert werden. Die Ergebnisse der Simulationsläufe zeigen, dass die Terassenstratigraphie im Untersuchungsgebiet hauptsächlich das Produkt interner Dynamiken im fluviationalen Alliersystem sowie klimatischer Veränderungen ist. Lokale

Tektonik verursachte das Entstehen ungepaarter Terassen, wogegen allgemeine regionale Hebung eine dominante Rolle bei der generellen Erhaltung der Terassen bis in die rezente Zeit gespielt hat.

Die in dieser Promotionsschrift vorgestellte Untersuchung zeigt deutlich, dass es gut möglich ist, in einem fluviatilen System die Interaktion zwischen Klima und Tektonik einerseits und fluviatiler Dynamiken andererseits semiquantitativ zu rekonstruieren. Die für das Alliersystem simulierte Dynamik, als deren Charakteristiken überwiegende Sedimentation während und am Ende einer Vereisung und überwiegende Reliefverschneidung während der Interglaziale definiert werden, hat keine Allgemeingültigkeit.

CONTENTS

	Page:	
<u>Chapter 1</u>	<u>INTRODUCTION</u>	1
<u>Chapter 2</u>	<u>STUDY AREA AND THE ALLIER TERRACE CHRONOLOGY</u>	5
2.1	Study area	5
2.1.1.	The Allier and Dore basins	7
2.1.2.	Fluvial terrace formation in the Allier basin	10
2.2	The Late Quaternary terrace chronology of the Allier.	12
2.2.1.	Introduction	12
2.2.2.	Materials and methods	13
2.2.3.	Terrace litho-stratigraphy	13
2.2.4.	A regional reconstruction of the Late Quaternary Allier dynamics.	23
2.2.5.	Climatic and fluvial dynamics in the Allier basin.	26
2.3	Trachytic pumice clasts in Middle Pleistocene Allier terrace deposits: A chrono-stratigraphical marker.	28
2.3.1.	Introduction	28
2.3.2.	A stratigraphic marker	31
2.3.3.	Pumice	32
2.3.4.	Correlation between pumice and dated Sancy eruptions	32
2.3.5.	Paleoenvironment	35
2.3.6.	Terrace chronology Va	36
2.3.7.	Tectonic implications	37
2.3.8.	Conclusions	38
<u>Chapter 3</u>	<u>SAND BULK GEOCHEMISTRY</u>	39
3.1	The application of bulk sand geochemistry in Quaternary research. A methodological study of the Allier and Dore terrace sands.	39
3.1.1.	Introduction	39
3.1.2.	Material and methods	40
3.1.3.	Results	44
3.1.4.	Regression with grain size data	49
3.1.5.	Regression modelling of weathering effects	51
3.1.6.	Discussion	53
3.1.7.	Conclusions	58
3.2	Parent material controlled subsoil weathering in the Allier terraces.	60
3.2.1.	Introduction	60
3.2.2.	Materials and methods	61
3.2.3.	Results and discussion	63
3.2.4.	Conclusions	75

3.3	Spatial variability in fluvial terrace sand composition at the Allier/Dore confluence.	76
3.3.1.	Introduction	76
3.3.2.	Study Area	78
3.3.3.	Material and methods	78
3.3.4.	Results and discussion	80
3.3.5.	Conclusions	88
3.4	Climate controlled sediment fluxes in the Allier basin during the Late Quaternary.	90
3.4.1.	Introduction	90
3.4.2.	Materials and methods	94
3.4.3.	Results and discussion	95
3.4.4.	Sediment mixing ratios at the Allier/Dore confluence	105
3.4.5.	Sediment fluxes and climate	110
3.4.6.	Methodological evaluation	111
3.4.7.	Conclusions	112
<u>Chapter 4</u>	<u>LONG TERM MODELLING OF RIVER TERRACE FORMATION.</u>	113
4.1	River terrace formation, modelling and 3-D graphical simulation.	118
4.1.1.	Introduction	118
4.1.2.	Materials and methods	119
4.1.3.	Model construction	120
4.1.4.	Model operation	123
4.1.5.	Results	127
4.1.6.	Discussion and Conclusions	134
4.2	A 3-D model of fluvial terrace development in the Allier basin.	136
4.2.1.	Introduction	136
4.2.2.	Model characteristics	139
4.2.3.	Model input	142
4.2.4.	Model output	145
4.2.5.	Simulation results	145
4.2.6.	Evaluation of the simulated Randan terrace sequence	152
4.2.7.	Conclusions	155
<u>Chapter 5</u>	<u>SYNTHESIS</u>	157
REFERENCES		165
APPENDICES		
	Appendix I Geochemical data Allier, Dore	
	Appendix II Program listing Graphical 3-D model Allier (LIMTER).	

INTRODUCTION

The global environment is subject to constant changes. Lately these global climatic changes have received much attention from the media. There is great and growing concern about the global environment, such as the accelerating increase in global greenhouse gases (CO_2 , CH_4 , CFC's etc) which may lead to a new global climate which will be warmer and more turbulent with associated sea level rise, etc. Other concerns are less well understood, irritant problems like ozone holes, increase ground level u.v. radiation, acid rain, all of which may have profound influence on ecosystems and biomass productivity.

In order to understand the future we have to study the past. A way to understand potential impacts of such global changes is to study analogue situations in the past. When one is interested in the nearby future one has to study short term variations in the past as proposed during the latest INQUA congress in Beijing. If one wants to get a more complete picture of the overall mechanisms of the global environmental changes one has to study paleoenvironmental dynamics on a geological time scale. Such overall studies can give important clues about the possible human impact on the earth environment.

The best studied past environments up to now are the deep sea, the polar environment (ice cores) and the eolian continental situation (löss sections in China). These past environments are stored in long continuous sediments which represent long time series up to more than 2.4 million years ago. The direct effects of these global changes on the fluvial system are still poorly understood. The fluvial system in dynamic equilibrium is able to adjust itself to changes of external variables by changing its internal variables like channel depth and width, river roughness, mean velocity, channel form, and slope (Schumm, 1977; Dawson & Gardiner, 1987). River terraces are an essential part of the fluvial system and are former abandoned floodplains which are found as elongated plateaus along valley slopes above the present river bed. Their formation can be looked upon as a result of

changes in equilibrium, caused by variation in external variables (Dury, 1970; Léger, 1983). Three driving forces behind terrace formation are frequently cited: changes in climate, tectonism and base level. Both climate and tectonism play a significant role in terrace formation as almost no terraced valley is known without any change in both factors during the Quaternary. Base level changes have only importance in fluvial reaches between actual coasts and the shelf edges.

River terraces provide long, but fragmentary, continental records of changing geo-environments. From a morphometrical point of view terraces are quite simple features but from a sedimentological point of view they are very complex. Each terrace unit is made up of several stacked often incomplete sedimentary cycles, representing alternating depositional and erosional stages. The resulting terrace stratigraphy provides a relative chronology to which other geological, geomorphological or palaeohydrological events can be related (Dawson & Gardiner, 1987). Unfortunately the character of the fluvial record makes it impossible to give a continuous long term registration of the paleoenvironment. A multi-disciplinary approach is thus necessary to study the past dynamics of a fluvial system.

During the last ten years the number of palaeohydrological investigations increased considerably. Fluvial dynamics during the Late Quaternary have been studied by Starkel (1983), Dawson & Gardiner (1987), Gregory et al. (1987) etc. These studies used terrace sedimentology, stratigraphy, morphology, and radiometric datings as research methodologies. During geochemical investigations of fluvial sands in France (Kroonenberg et al., 1988) and The Netherlands (Moura & Kroonenberg, 1990) it was found that bulk geochemical sand composition can also serve as an excellent indicator of both sedimentary processes and long-term changes in sediment composition as a result of climatic and uplift history.

Another aspect of fluvial systems is that they are so complex, and develop on such long time spans, that laboratory experiments and real system measurements (e.g. Schumm et al., 1977) can only partly reveal part of their functioning. Computer simulation is

increasingly recognized as a novel way to understand the way geomorphic systems work (e.g. Anderson, 1988). Especially process oriented geomorphologists tend to model their measured processes more and more. On the other hand the need for models describing less well known and defined systems is also growing. A simulation purely focussed on river terrace formation was done by Boll et al. (1988). Their qualitative 2-D model is unfortunately unsuitable for quantitative applications.

The research presented in this thesis is focussed on a quantitative reconstruction of the effects of past environmental dynamics within a fluvial system. At first, river terrace sediments are investigated with bulk sand geochemistry and these quantitative results are used as inputs for a model simulating river terrace formation in a fluvial system as a function of climatic changes and vertical crustal movements.

The study area is a part of the Allier basin (Limagne) in the Auvergne, Massif Central, France. In this area many basic geomorphological data were already collected for a project of the Agricultural University Wageningen (VF86-90). The study area was thought as very suitable for this kind of research because the Allier and its tributaries have many terraces and relatively much of the Quaternary history is known due to the eventful volcanic history.

The research was carried out in three stages. A stage with mainly field work to sample and determine the terrace stratigraphy and chronology in more detail. A second phase with analyzing and processing sand bulk geochemical data, and a third and final stage dedicated to modelling the Allier Quaternary terrace formation.

This thesis contains eight papers which are all revised and edited to one format. The original papers are listed below.

The order of chapters is according to the three named stages.
Stage one. In chapter 2, the study area is briefly introduced

(2.1), followed by new observations and insights of the Allier Quaternary terrace stratigraphy and chronology (2.2, 2.3).

Stage two. Chapter 3, describes the application of bulk sand geochemistry as a tool in Quaternary terrace research (3.1), followed by a model of the impact of weathering in the Allier terrace sands (3.2). Fluvial dynamics and sand geochemistry are linked in section 3.3 and 3.4 where the spatial, longitudinal and time related dynamics of sediment fluxes in the Allier during the Late Weichselian are reconstructed.

Stage three. The complete integration of the current knowledge on long term dynamics of fluvial systems in general and the Allier system particularly is made in chapter 4. In section 4.1 a modelling methodology and the evolving conceptual 3-D model on fluvial terrace formation are discussed. In section 4.2 an adapted and extended model for the Allier system is presented and evaluated.

Finally, in chapter 5 a synthesis is made. The usefulness and validity of the research methodologies are discussed and evaluated followed by a regional evaluation.

STUDY AREA AND THE ALLIER TERRACE CHRONOLOGY

The study area is situated in Central France and comprises the Allier drainage basin. The Allier drains the Limagne rift valley and the surrounding Hercynian crystalline Massif Central. The Allier basin has many different terrace levels witnessing former flood plain levels. One of the earliest papers on the Allier terraces in the Limagne graben dates back to 1917 (E. Chaput). Detailed information on all previous investigations on the Allier terraces can be found in J-F Pastre's thesis (Patre, 1987).

2.1 STUDY AREA

Most information in this chapter is derived from review books. More details on the general geological setting can be found in Autran & Peterlongo (1980) and in Jung (1971). The geology of the study area is excellently mapped at a 1:50.000 scale by the BRGM (Bureau de Recherches Géologiques et Minières). The following rather detailed maps served as basis of the field investigations Vichy XXVI-29, Maringues XXVI-30, Thiers XXVI-31 , Clermont-Ferrand XXV-31. The general geological setting is shown in Fig 2.1.1. and the studied terraces are shown in Fig. 2.1.2.

The oldest parts in the Massif Central are Late Precambrian and Caledonian high grade metamorphic rocks as gneisses and granulites. The majority of the metamorphic rocks in the Massif Central were metamorphosed during the Hercynian orogeny. The majority of the rocks are gneisses and granites, but also Palaeozoic sedimentary rocks and acid volcanic rocks are locally found.

After the Hercynian orogeny prolonged denudation seems to have dominated. Some residual flint occurrences suggest Mesozoic sedimentation in the Massif Central but more substantial evidence is still lacking. During the Tertiary when the Alpine orogeny started, many grabens opened up in the Massif central like the Rhône, Loire and Limagne graben.

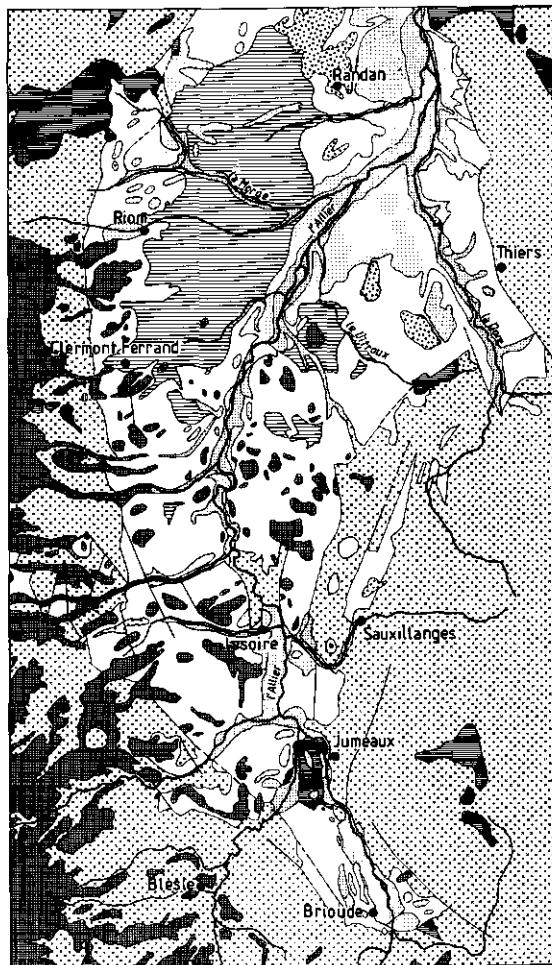
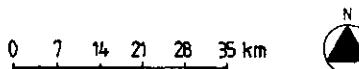


Figure 2.1.1. General geological setting of the study area

-  Fault line
-  Metamorphic and intrusive rocks
-  Paleozoic sediments
-  Cenozoic volcanics
-  Oligocene sediments
-  Pliocene sediments
-  Quaternary fluvial sediments
-  Holocene fluvial sediments
-  Holocene lake and marsh sediments



The sedimentary infill of these tectonic depressions started immediately. The Limagne rift valley which mainly developed during the Oligocene, was filled with marls, chalks, sands and clays during the Oligocene and Miocene. Meanwhile volcanism started along the active faulting zones from Miocene onwards to recent times. Cantal volcanism reached its climax between 9 and 6 million years ago, while the Mont Dore volcano had its most active phase between 3 and 1 million years ago. Late Quaternary and Holocene volcanism took place in the Chaine des Puys.

2.1.1. The Allier and Dore basins

This study is mainly focussed on the terraces of the Allier and Dore rivers near their confluence (Fig 2.1.2). The Dore, draining the crystalline Forez, is a major Allier tributary. Other major tributaries are the Allagnon, draining the Cantal and Cézallier, and the Couze Pavin and Couze Chambon draining the Mont Dore region.

The Allier basin covers a surface of 14310 km² and has a mean annual discharge of 147 m³/s. At the Allier Dore confluence the upstream Allier basin covers approximately 9000 km² while the Dore basin surface comprises 1250 km². The mean Allier discharge

at this confluence is 98 m³/s and the mean Dore discharge 18 m³/s (Pastre, 1987).

The Allier basin is underlain by both volcanic (22%) and crystalline basement rocks (58%), the Dore basin predominantly by crystalline basement (72%). Additionally, mainly basement-derived Oligocene sediments occur in both basins, 20% and 28% respectively.

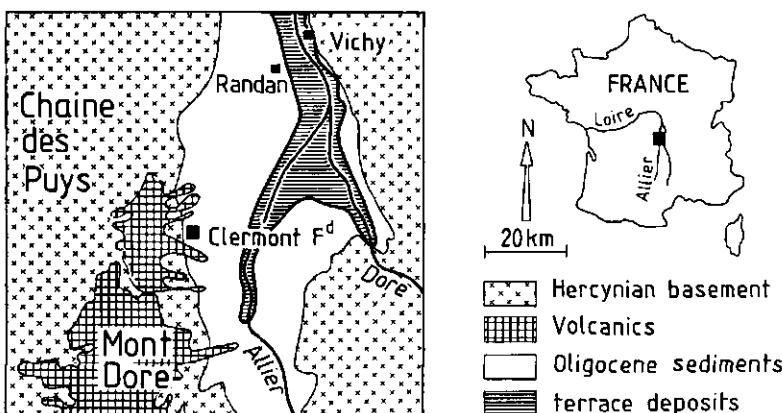


Figure 2.1.2. The studied Allier and Dore terraces.

The two basins differ also in geological history. Whereas the higher parts of the Allier basin, notably the Cantal and Mont Dore volcanoes, were subjected to severe glaciation (Veyret, 1980; Kieffer, 1971), the Dore basin has been largely free from glaciers, except for a very small part of the Forez (Etlicher et al. 1987).

Both rivers have about eight main terrace levels, numbered from Z (present river bed) to S (oldest terrace level). Including the different sub levels at least 14 different levels (Z, ZY, Y, YX, Xb, Xa, Wb, Wa, Vb, Va, Ub, Ua, T, S) can be distinguished.

The Allier terrace deposits are gravelly and sandy sediments poor in clay. The gravel composition reflects the different lithologies within the Allier basin. This composition is not linear correlated with basin lithology, the volcanic components

usually predominate while the Oligocene rocks are usually rare. Common heavy minerals of the Allier terraces are augite, green and brown hornblende, olivine, mica's and opaques (Van Dorsser, 1969; Rudel, 1963; Pelletier, 1971; Pastre 1986; Tourenq, 1986). The opaque component which can comprise more than 50% of the fine sand fraction, is predominantly composed of basaltic rock fragments (Kroonenberg et al., 1988). Larue (1977) studied the downstream changes in gravel petrology and Tourenq (1986) studied changes in heavy mineral content of the Allier terraces. Their results do not match well and are not comparable as they studied different specific fractions of the Allier sediments.

The heavy fraction of the Dore terrace sands (Van Dorsser, 1969; Pelletier, 1971; Tourenq, 1986; Van Wijck, 1985) consists essentially of mica's, tourmaline, zircon, opaques and augite. The occurrence of augite indicates some volcanic influence, but as volcanic bedrock is absent in the Dore basin, these minerals must originate from wind-blown ashes.

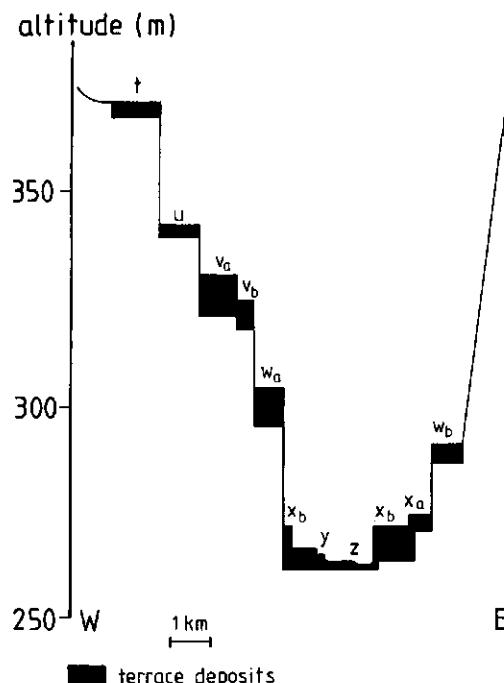


Figure 2.1.3. The schematical cross section of terraces at Randan.

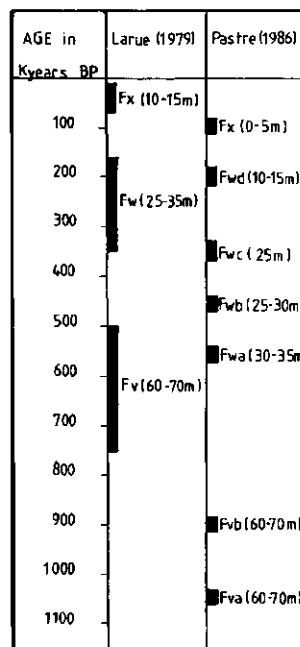
2.1.2. Fluvial terrace formation in the Allier basin

As this study focuses on the fluvial Allier dynamics during the Quaternary a short overview of the current knowledge will be presented. Two major investigations were carried out on the fluvial sediments of the Allier terraces. Larue (1979) made the first thorough investigation on chrono-stratigraphy based on sediment composition while Pastre (1987) focussed on the heavy sand mineral assemblies in order to correlate and date the different terrace deposits by relating sand mineralogy with the mineralogy of dated eruptions. Both Larue and Pastre studied the whole Allier basin.

One of the most complete terrace sequences in the Allier basin is found near Randan (Clozier et al., 1980). This chronosequence displays at least ten terrace levels, shown schematically in the cross-section of Fig. 2.1.3. The oldest terrace level in this sequence, T is thought to be about 2 million years old (Patre, 1987).

There are two existing terrace chronologies (Fig. 2.1.4.) one established by Larue (1979) and one by Patre (1986, 1987). Both authors used indirect ways of correlating terraces with a certain age.

Figure 2.1.4. The two existing terrace chronologies



The typical sequence of terraces present in the Allier valley shows that accumulation and vertical erosion alternated repeatedly during the general valley deepening. Very similar terrace sequences are found along the Rhine, Meuse and Thames (Van den Berg, 1989; Van Straaten, 1946; Brunnacker & Boenigk, 1983; Andres, 1989; Mc Gregor & Green, 1978).

The mechanism of terrace formation is usually sought in three major external factors, climate, tectonism and base level. As the exact terrace formation mechanism for the Allier terraces is unknown each factor is considered.

Climate

Terrace sediment composition and alteration indicate that most of the Allier terrace deposits cumulated during and at the end of glacials. The alternations between cumulation and incision are therefore ascribed primarily to climatic causes (Raynal, 1984; Texier & Raynal, 1984; Bout, 1963; Kroonenberg et al., 1988).

Tectonism

The contribution of tectonism to terrace formation in the Allier basin is obvious from the tendency towards valley deepening throughout the Quaternary. The total amount of valley deepening at Randan since the Quaternary and consequently the probable amount of gradual uplift is about 150 m. Except gradual neotectonic uplift, which still takes place (Giot et al., 1978), some terrace sequences and longitudinal profiles suggest a tectonic fault component (Larue, 1979; Giot et al., 1978).

Base level

A direct or indirect influence of sea level variations on the erosion and sedimentation in the Allier basin appears not to have been possible as there is an area of continuous Quaternary deposition between the study area and the sea in the Paris basin and the lower Loire basin.

In general it can be concluded that climate and tectonism are the main external factors which have determined Quaternary terrace formation in the Allier basin.

2.2 THE LATE QUATERNARY TERRACE CHRONOLOGY OF THE ALLIER.

A. Veldkamp & S.B. Kroonenberg

Abstract

The Late Quaternary terrace chronology of the Allier has been reconstructed by means of terrace litho-stratigraphy with Th/U disequilibrium and ^{14}C datings. The terrace level at 25 m above present riverbed (Wb) near Coudes has a Late Saalian age. The two Weichselian terrace levels Xa and Xb (20 and 10 m) have at least four different litho-stratigraphical units, a Middle Pleniglacial, two Late Pleniglacial and a Younger Dryas unit respectively. The oldest Holocene terrace sediments have Atlanticum ages. The timing of Allier incision and sedimentation during the Late Weichselian seems mainly climatic related. Major fluvioglacial sediment fluxes from the melting glaciers on the Mt. Dore and Cantal at the end of the Late Pleniglacial caused a strong rise of Allier riverbed level. This rise of approximately 20 m in the Limagne contributed to formation of lakes like Marais de Ravel and the Grand Marais.

2.2.1. Introduction

Within lower Allier terraces major differences in sediment composition are known to occur (Kroonenberg et al., 1988; Larue, 1977). The major difference between the present riverbed and the Weichselian terrace (X) is the higher amount of basaltic fragments in the X terrace sands. This difference has partly a climatic origin as the Late Weichselian sediments are thought to have a fluvioglacial origin from melting glaciers in volcanic areas (Bout, 1963; Kroonenberg et al., 1988).

A previous bulk geochemical study (Kroonenberg et al., 1988) of Allier sands showed that basaltic rock fragments determine the TiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , MgO , CaO and P_2O_5 content in the Allier sediments. Changes in bulk geochemical sand composition are well illustrated by CaO content, concentrated in the basaltic rock fragments, K_2O content, concentrated in crystalline rock fragments, and Na_2O concentrated in sodic plagioclase. CaO and K_2O contents are virtually independent of grain size because their host minerals are found in almost all grain size fractions and Na_2O is enriched in the finer sand fraction due to selective abrasion (Veldkamp, 1990).

In this chapter a new and more elaborated Late Quaternary

terrace (chemo)litho-stratigraphy is presented with new ^{14}C and U/Th datings allowing a more precise time setting of the Allier fluvial dynamics during the Late Quaternary.

2.2.2. Materials and methods

The various lower terrace levels have been thoroughly investigated by studying all available exposures along terrace scarps and in gravel/sand pits. Based on these sedimentological field observations and measured bulk geochemical sand composition a new litho-stratigraphy was made.

Sampling methodology and laboratory treatments and measurements of the sands were done according to Kroonenberg et al. (1988). The bulk element concentrations of SiO_2 , TiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , Al_2O_3 , MnO , MgO , CaO , Na_2O , K_2O and P_2O_5 , were measured with X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy. Mean bulk geochemical composition of each sampled sand layer is plotted for each described key section.

Special attention was paid to lithological discontinuities associated with paleosols and kryoturbated sediments/paleosols. The litho-stratigraphy was elaborated at those sites where datable materials were found. Sediments were dated with ^{14}C on organic rich samples, and by both ^{14}C and Th/U disequilibrium datings (Kroonenberg et al., in prep) of travertines. There are three main groups of terraces, from old to young, W, X and XY. The different terraces levels are indicated by an a or b (Wb and Xa) and the different litho-stratigraphical units by roman figures (X_{IV} and Wb_I). The studied W terrace is the Wb level which is found at 25 m above the actual Allier, The studied X levels, Xa and Xb, are found at 20 and 10 m respectively, while the ZY level starts at 7 m down to the present Allier.

2.2.3. Terrace litho-stratigraphy

Wb terrace sediments

The ages of the W terrace levels (25 to 45 m above river level) are still uncertain. A stratigraphical, palynological and sedimentological study at Pont-du-Château of Raynal et al. (1981) made them conclude that the Wa (45m) terrace sediments were most

probably deposited during the Cromerian glacial. They observed reworked ash layers in the studied Wa sediments. The mineralogy of these ash layers strongly resembles the characteristics of an ash layer used as a chronostratigraphic marker by Debard & Pastre (1988). This green clinopyroxene rich ash was given an age of approximately 300,000 years B.P., thus indicating that a younger age is more likely.

Near the Allier/Couze Chambon confluence at Coudes the 25 m terrace is well exposed along the RN 9. At this key section terrace sediments are found in a former gully incised in granite. The sediments have a maximum thickness of about 10 m and two main units can be distinguished (Fig. 2.2.1.). The lower unit, the Wb_I sediments, are poorer in volcanic clasts (less MgO and more K₂O) than the overlying Wb_{II} sediments. Wb_I sediments are slightly altered before they were buried with Wb_{II} sediments. Both Wb litho-stratigraphic units are impregnated with travertine from nearby former springs.

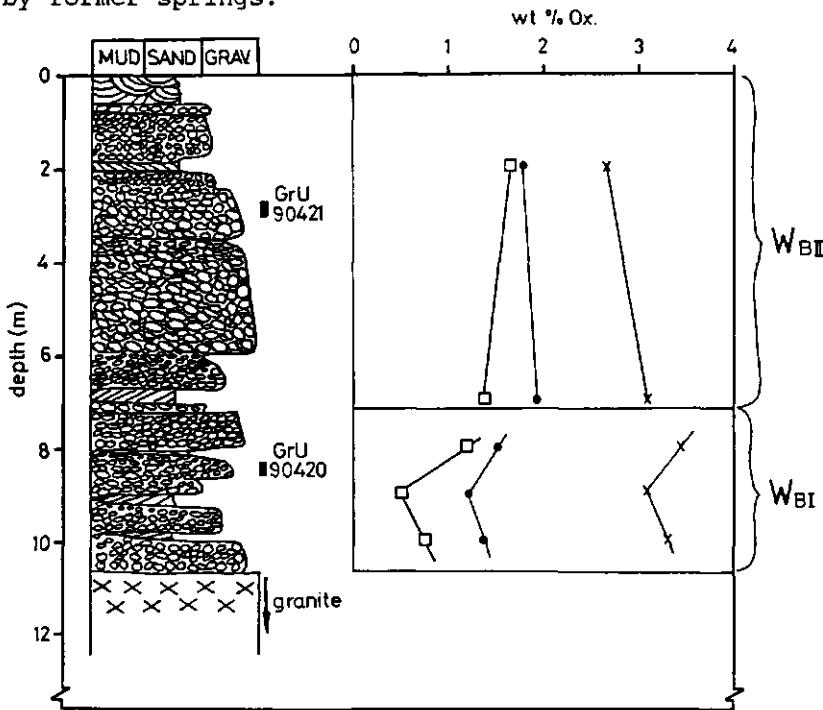


Figure 2.2.1 Keysection in Wb sediments at Coudes

□ MgO
 × K₂O
 ● Na₂O

The 25 m terrace level was originally dated as Late Weichselian based on fossils and artefacts found on and in the travertine capping of this terrace (Daugas & Tixier, 1978). Although both terrace units were originally thought to have a Weichselian age, radiometric dating showed otherwise.

The travertine impregnating both Wb units at Coudes was dated with the non-equilibrium Th/U method giving an age of $119,000 \pm 13,000$ (GrU-90420) for the Wb_I, and $93,000 \pm 5000$ GrU-90421) for Wb_{II} travertine.

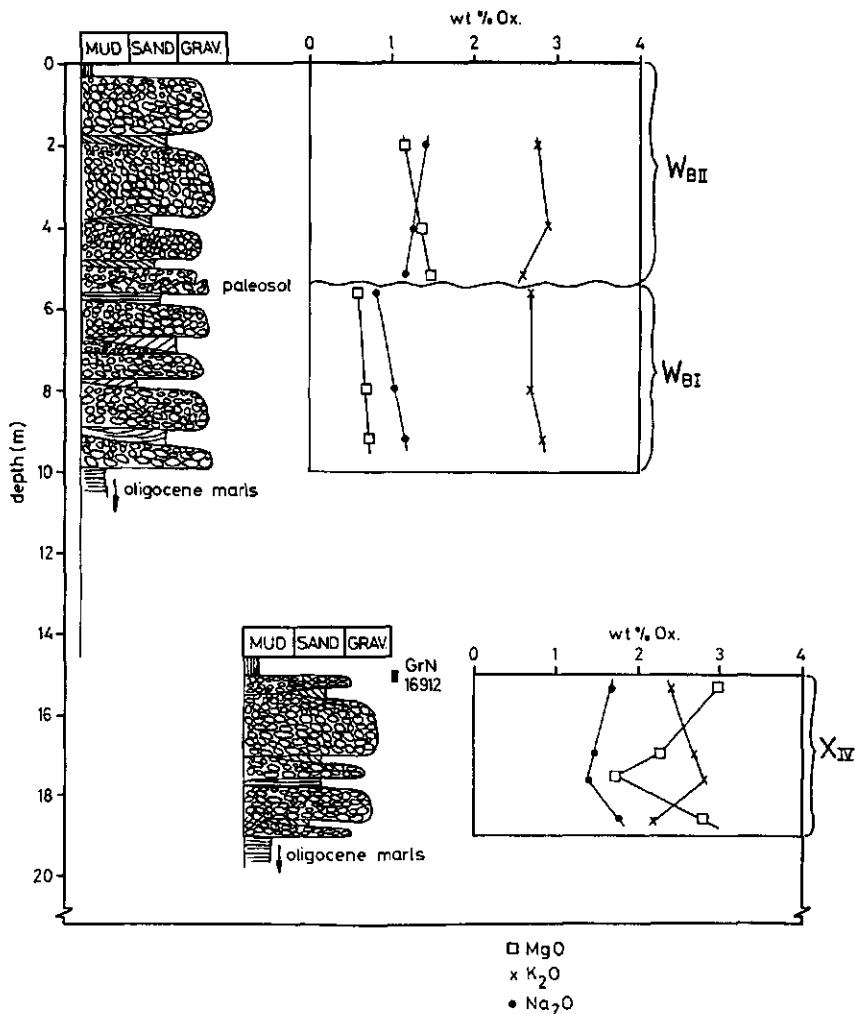


Figure 2.2.2 Keysection in Wb sediments at Longues

As the travertine shows no stratigraphical discontinuity between the two units, it must have been deposited after the Wb_{II} sediments. The Wb_{II} sediments are almost unaltered before travertine impregnation started indicating that these sediments are only slightly older than the oldest travertines. The travertines give therefore only the minimum age for the Wb_{II} sediments. As the Wb sediments were already deposited and in case of the Wb_I unit also altered before travertine impregnation took place these units are thought to have at least Saalian ages. Travertines impregnating terrace sediments of the 50 m terrace have Th/U ages up to 160.000 ± 10.000 (GrU-90418) years BP, indicating that travertine deposition took place also place during the Saalian. These older travertines suggest also that the Wb_{II} sediments are not much older than the Late Saalian travertines cementing them.

At Longues another terrace level at ±25 m above river terrace level is found. This terrace level displays a similar litho-stratigraphy (Fig. 2.2.2.) as the Coudes key section. The Wb_I sediments are also poorer in volcanic clasts (less MgO and more K₂O) than the overlying Wb_{II} sediments. The underlying Wb_I sediments are altered and locally kryoturbated before they were buried with Wb_{II} sediments. The kryoturbated paleosol clearly evidences a major time lag between the deposition of the two Wb units. At Longues the terrace sediments are also impregnated and covered with travertines. The travertines capping of the Wb terrace sediments at Longues were preliminarily dated by Kroonenberg et al. (1989), with the non-equilibrium Th/U method, giving Middle Weichselian ages as minimum ages for the Wb sediments.

The distinguished Wb terrace litho-stratigraphy is schematically shown in Figure 2.2.3., by two key-sections, one at Coudes and one at Longues. The general characteristics of the terrace litho-stratigraphy are described below.

Wb_I and Wb_{II}: Based on the similarities in litho-stratigraphy, bulk geochemistry and geographical position, the two Wb sites lie only 7 kilometres apart, the Wb terrace sediments are thought to

belong to the same terrace units and to have Saalian ages. The Wb_{II} sediments are not much older than 120,000 years while the Wb_I sediments are thought to have an age between 160,000 and 120,000 years.

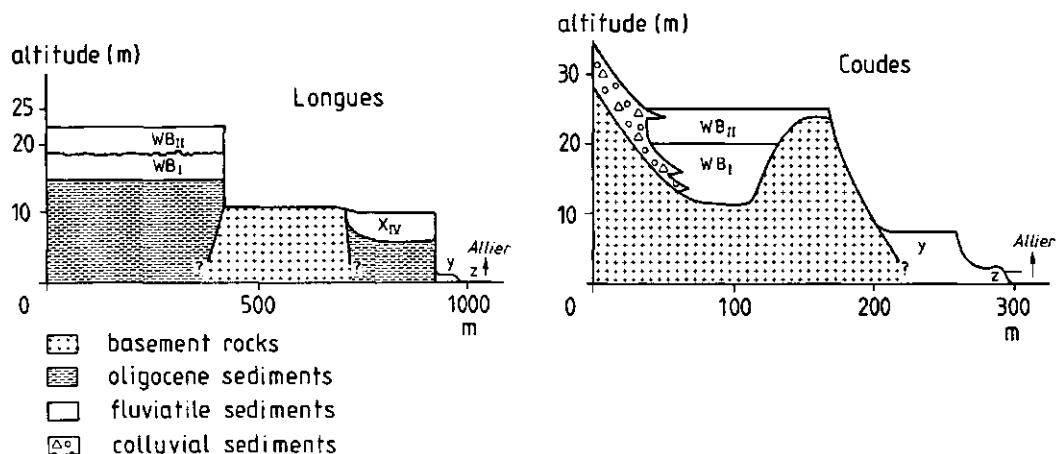


Figure 2.2.3 Schematical litho-stratigraphy

X terrace sediments

For the younger X and Y terrace levels, fragmentary palaeontological, palynological, archaeological and ¹⁴C datings evidence that they were formed during the Weichselian and Holocene (Rudel, 1953; Lambert et al., 1980; Raynal, 1984). An important key section of the X terraces is situated at Les Jarraudts (Fig 2.2.4.), where all four Weichselian litho-stratigraphical units are found nearby. The highest terrace level is found at approximately 20 m above present riverbed. This terrace level, Xa, consists of two litho-stratigraphical units, a gravelly top unit which is characterized by high basaltic (high MgO and low K₂O content) sand and gravel content (X_{III}). This unit is locally overlying a more sandy unit relatively poor in basaltic fragments (X_{II}). At the transition to the lower Xb terrace level the Oligocene clays surface. The Xb terrace (10 m

above present river) has also two main litho-stratigraphic units. On top again relatively basaltic rich sediments (X_{VI}) overlie a basaltic poorer sediment (X_I). Sometimes the basaltic poor X_{III} sediments are found between X_I and X_{IV} sediments indicating that the X_I sediments are the relative oldest X sediments. The lower sediments (X_I) are altered and locally a paleosol is found at the contact with the overlying (X_{II} , X_{III} and X_{IV}) sediments. An organic rich clay layer at the base of the (X_I) unit was ^{14}C dated at $29,560 \pm 330$ years B.P. (GrN-17242), revealing a Middle Pleniglacial age. A colder climatic environment was suggested by the pollen content of this layer (Tuffery, 1986).

The four distinguished units are also found at other sites. The general characteristics of these four Late Weichselian units are schematically shown in Fig. 2.2.5. and described below.

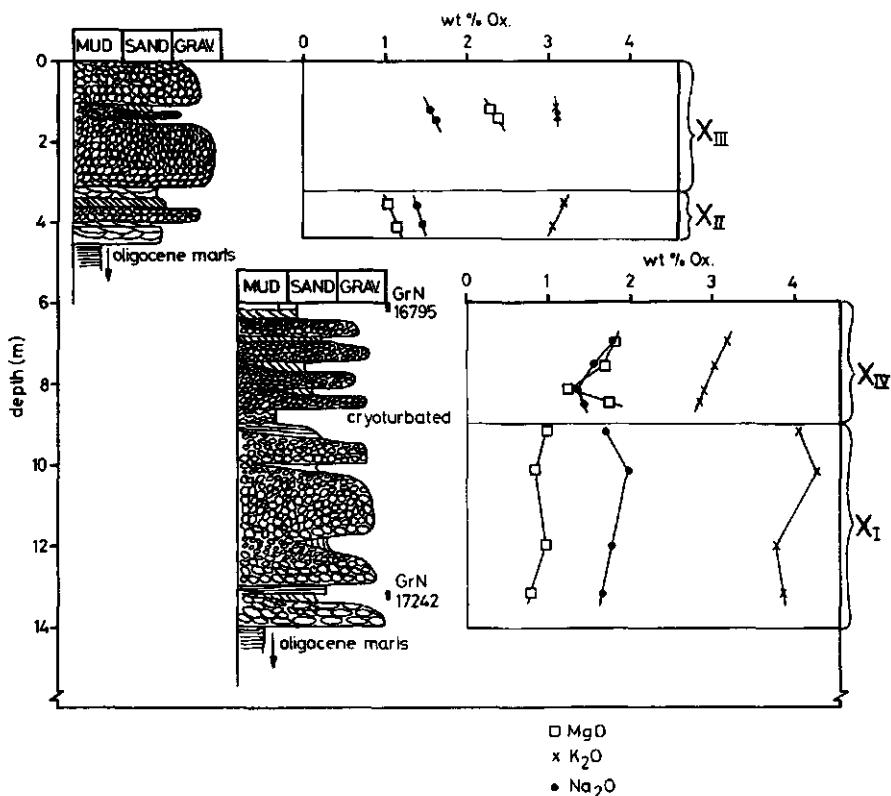


Figure 2.2.4. Key section at Les Jarrauds

X_I: This litho-stratigraphic unit, XW according to Kroonenberg et al. (1988), consists of gravelly sediments relatively poor in volcanic components. The thickness changes from almost 20 m to less than 3 m. This unit is an altered and strongly dissected relict of a former terrace level at about ±20 m above present river level. The X_I lithological unit is found in both X terrace levels (Xa and Xb).

upstream Allier-Dore confluence

downstream Allier-Dore confluence

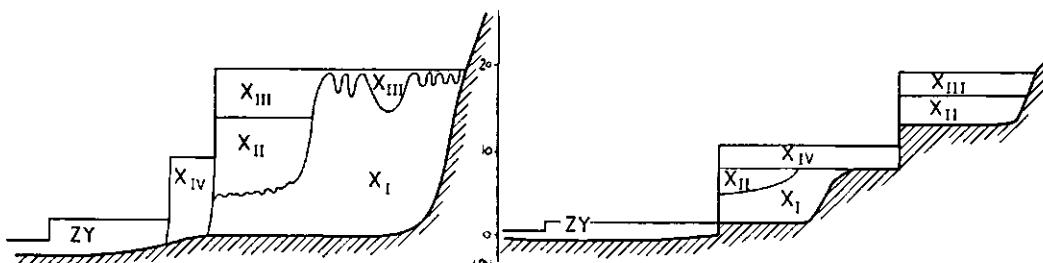


Figure 2.2.5 Schematic litho-stratigraphy northern section

South of Maringues and West of Le Bas Lachamp uneroded remnants of this 20 m terrace are found, the upper one to two metres of the X_I sediments are commonly disturbed by kryoturbation and frost wedges (Fig 2.2.6. and 2.2.7.). A kryoturbated clay layer in the upper two metres of this unit (Fig. 2.2.6.) West of La Bas Lachamp has an ¹⁴C age of 16,585 ± 250 years B.P. (GrN-17243) giving a minimum age for the X_I sediments and a maximum age of the last major kryoturbation activity in the X_I sediments.

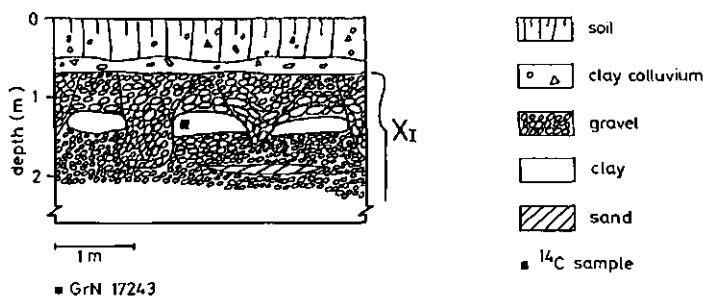


Figure 2.2.6 Kryoturbation of the top X_I sediments at Las bas Lachamps

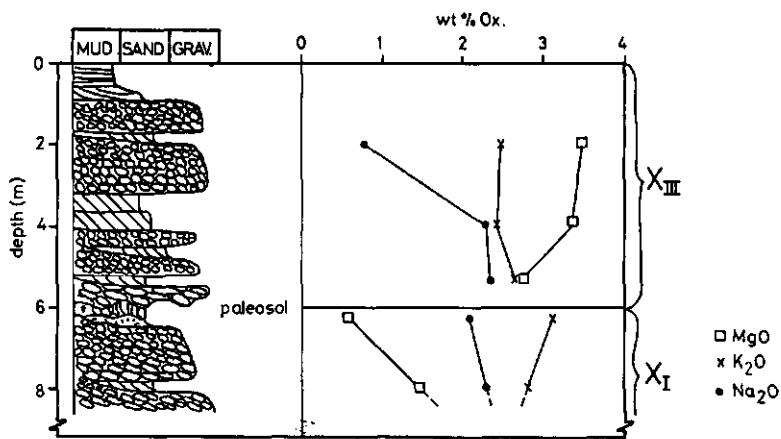


Figure 2.2.7 X_{III} overlying kryoturbated paleosol in X_I sediments at Culhat.

X_{II}: This lithological unit, the crystalline X terrace according to Larue (1977), predominantly consists of sandy sediments with a low volcanic content. These sediments occur very locally on top the X_I and below the X_{III} and X_{IV} sediments, and have a limited thickness of three to less than one metre. This unit is found in terrace level Xa as well as in Xb. The sediments are unaltered and no pollen or other datable materials were found in these sediments.

X_{III}: This litho-stratigraphic unit usually forms the top layer of the Xa terrace level (± 20 m above river level), and consists of gravelly sediments very rich in volcanic components. The X_{III} sediments are overlying both the X_I and X_{II} units. The volcanic rich sediments, which lack any datable material, are closely related to deglaciation in the upper Allier basin and have a

fluvio-glacial origin (Bout, 1963; Kroonenberg et al., 1988). The X_{III} sediments did locally bury some strongly kryoturbated paleosols in the X_I sediments (Fig 2.2.5.) indicating a maximum age of the X_{III} sediments of approximately 16,500 years B.P. (age of buried kryoturbated clay in paleosol in X_I sediments).

Correlation between the Late Weichselian chronology in the Artière basin and the Allier sediments showed that the age of the X_{III} unit is between 11,500 and 41,000 years B.P. (Lenselink et al., 1990). The pre-Alleröd age of the X_{III} sediments was confirmed by the observation near Lempdes that X_{III} sediment are buried by the same trachy-andesitic Alleröd ash as dated in the Ravel and Artière basin (Kroonenberg et al., 1987; Lenselink et al., 1990; Juvigné, personal communication). The X_{III} sediments were thus deposited between 16,500 and 11,500 years B.P..

X_{IV}: This litho-stratigraphic unit is the top layer of the Xb terrace level (\pm 10 m above river level) and consists of gravelly and sandy sediments rich in volcanic components (Fig 2.2.8.). An organic clay block of a buried paleosol at the basis of the X_{IV} sediment unit (Fig 2.2.8.) at St Yorre has an ^{14}C age of 11,380 \pm 100 years B.P., (GrN-16793). Another buried paleosol developed in the top layer of the X_{IV} sediments at Les Granvaux buried by a local sand fan has an age of 7310 \pm 70 years B.P. (GrN-16795). The X_{IV} sediments were thus deposited between 11,380 \pm 100 and 7310 \pm 70 years B.P..

At Longues another terrace \pm 8 m above river level is found which resembles the X_{IV} unit as described in the northern section. It consists of gravelly and sandy sediments rich in volcanic components (much MgO and less K₂O), impregnated and capped with travertine. This level was dated by means of a correlation with a nearby dated archaeological site by Raynal (1984) as Younger Dryas. We dated organic matter of a palaeosol in the top sediments buried by half a metre pure travertine. The organic matter has an ^{14}C age of 9,630 \pm 90 BP (GrN 16912), this Early Holocene age of post depositional organic matter confirms the Younger Dryas age of the X_{IV} sediments. But the CaCO₃ in the same sample was ^{14}C dated at 25200 \pm 900 years B.P. (GrN-16912).

St. Yorre

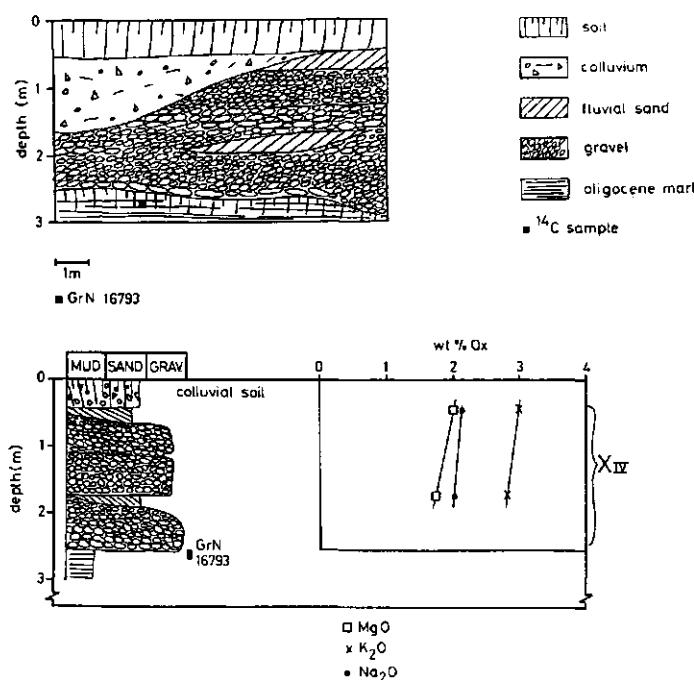


Figure 2.2.8 Keysection in X_{IV} sediments at St Yorre

As the CaCO₃ was precipitated in and around the dated organic matter, the CaCO₃ should be younger than the organic matter. These contradicting ages made us conclude that the dated CaCO₃ contained 'fossil' carbonates probably originating from the nearby Oligocene limestones.

ZY: This unit consists of at least three different terrace levels with predominantly sandy sediments, relatively poor in volcanic components. The oldest dated Holocene sediments from gullies incised in the X_{IV} sediments have a ^{14}C age of $6,230 \pm 100$ years B.P., (GrN-16794). A similar age was found for the oldest Holocene terrace level (Lambert et al., 1980).

2.2.4. A regional reconstruction of the Late Quaternary Allier dynamics

Our reconstructed chronology starts in the Saalian (Riss) when Wb_I and Wb_{II} sediments were most probably deposited. As no more details are known of these sediments, they cannot be correlated with any climatic event or environment. Our dated chronology of the Allier sediments allows only a tentative reconstruction of the Allier dynamics during the last 30,000 years (Fig 2.2.9.). As standard the oceanic deep sea curve is used (Hays et al., 1976; Komink et al., 1979) and matched with the continental chronologies of Les Echets (De Beaulieu et al., 1984) and Grande Pile (Woillard, 1978; Woillard & Mook, 1982). More regional sedimentological and palynological studies (De Beaulieu et al., 1982; Juvigné et al., 1988; Raynal et al., 1984; Reille & De Beaulieu, 1988) served as extra checks.

The litho-stratigraphy (Fig 2.2.9. fifth column) starts during a Middle Pleniglacial interstadial when the Allier was probably incised to the present river level.

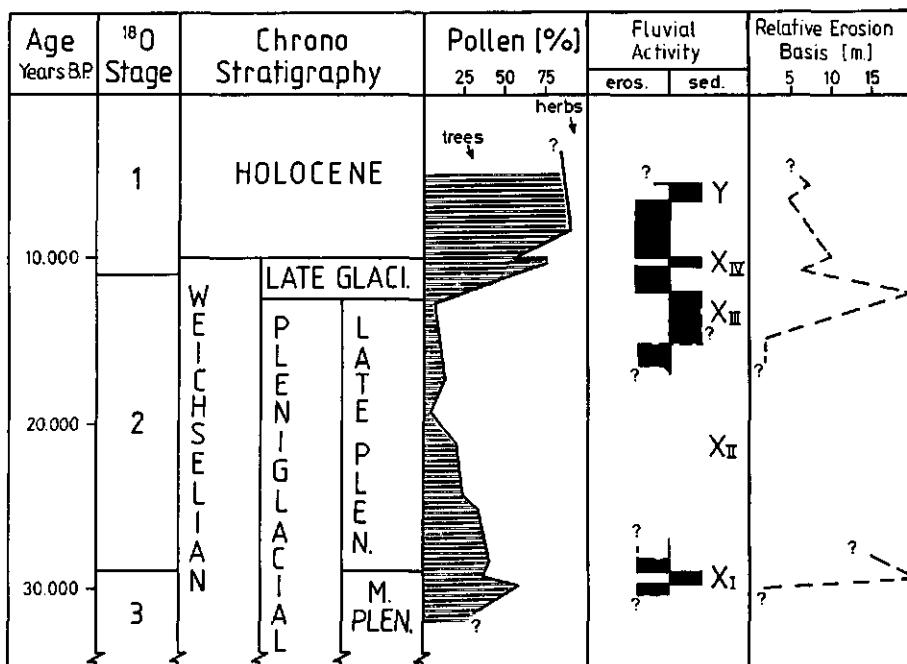


Figure 2.2.9 The Late Weichselian chronology of the Allier

When the X_I sediments were deposited during the Middle Pleniglacial the riverbed level rose up to 20 m above present river level. These X_I sediments were locally at least 15 m dissected and altered during the subsequent Late Pleniglacial before deposition of the X_{II} sediments. During the Late Pleniglacial known as the coldest episode during Weichselian the glaciers had their maximum extension and a dry tundra existed in the Limagne (Veyret, 1980; De Beaulieu et al., 1982; Raynal, 1984). Under this severe climate the strong periglacial deformation of the upper X_I sediments took place. Within this environment local deposition of the volcanic poor X_{II} sediments took place. This cold period ended at the end of the Late Pleniglacial triggering a large fluvio-glacial sediment flux from the volcanic areas. This climate improvement which took place in several thousands of years, resulted in the deposition of the gravelly volcanic rich sediments of unit X_{III} (Bout, 1963; Kroonenberg et al., 1988). Their deposition caused a rise of 20 m of the river bed level and must have happened during catastrophic floods causing an infill of the palaeo-Auzon valley (Lenselink et al., 1990) and lake formation in the lower tributaries (Morge, Litroux, Buron etc) in the Limagne. X_{III} sediment were probably 15 m dissected during Bölling and Alleröd, after which the X_{IV} sediments were deposited during the colder Younger Dryas. These Late Glacial sediments were dissected during the Early Holocene. The oldest record of fluvial Holocene deposition in the Allier starts in the Atlanticum.

The X_{III} sediments and lake formation in the Limagne

Oval shaped semi-closed depressions (locally called 'marais'), several kilometres in diameter, occur in the lower parts of the Limagne rift valley. Within these marais lake sediments are found (Gachon, 1963). The top altitude of the X_{III} unit coincides with the altitude of the upper lake sediments in the Limagne. Their geographical relation is visualized in Fig 2.2.10. As the lake sediments, like the X_{III} sediments, overlie a kryoturbatic surface their deposition seems related. The X_{III} sediments originating from large sediment fluxes are thought to have served as a

barrier for the local tributaries causing lake development in the Limagne. These minor Allier tributaries in the Limagne could never compensate a sudden rise in riverbed level of 20 m by sedimentation due to their limited sediment supply. As the oldest lake sediments have an age of $12,370 \pm 230$ years B.P. (GrN-12891) (Kroonenberg et al., 1987) the X_{III} sediments are thought to be deposited between $16,585 \pm 250$ and $12,370 \pm 230$ years B.P..

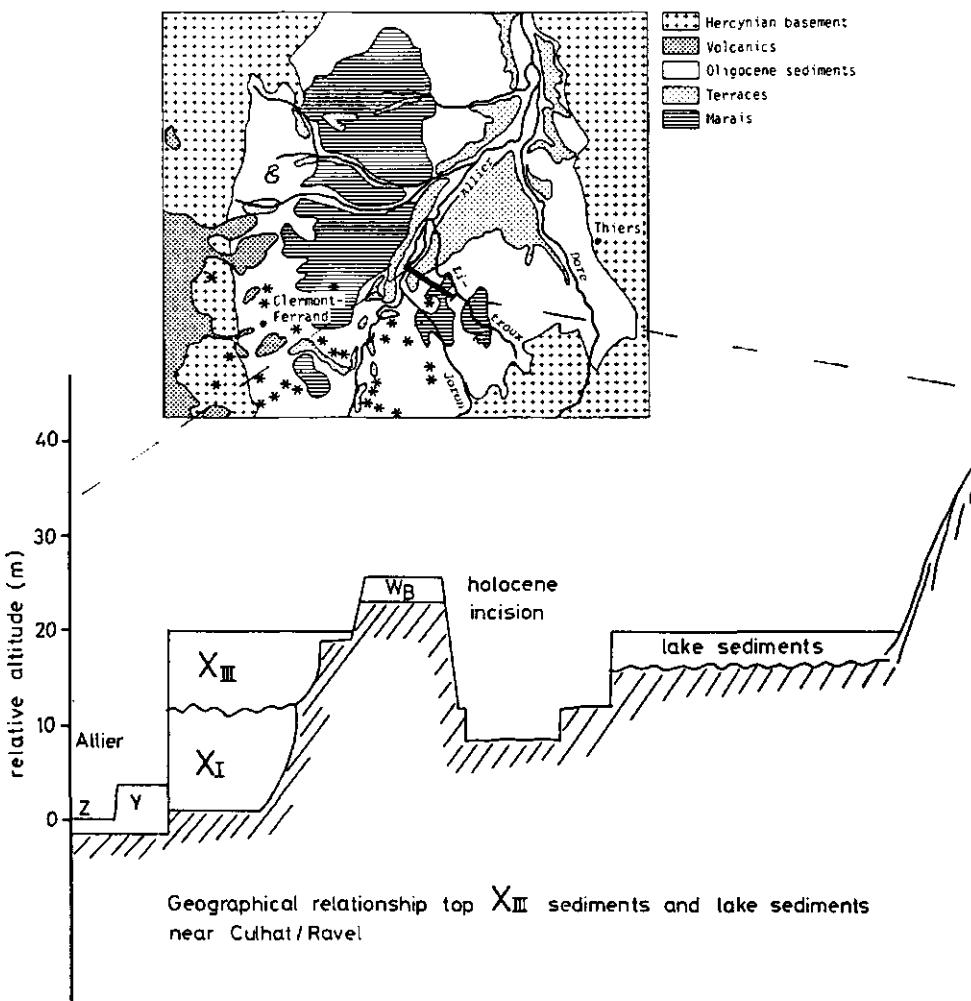


Figure 2.2.10 Schematical morphological relation between the top of the X_a terrace level and lake sediments.

Kroonenberg et al. (1987) explained lake development by thermokarst due to permafrost degradation a process which may have contributed to the actual lake basin morphology. But it are the large sediment fluxes during the end of the Late Pleniglacial which are thought to have caused lake formation in the Limagne.

2.2.5. Climatic and fluvial dynamics in the Allier basin

The regional reconstruction of the Allier dynamics during the Late Weichselian as in Fig. 2.2.9., allows the postulation of a simplified model for the relationship between climatic and fluvial dynamics in the Allier basin.

Climatic environment	Fluvial activity
Glacial	Deposition of sediments with a relative low volcanic content (< MgO and > K ₂ O). The older surface terrace sediments are kryoturbated.
Transition from Glacial to interglacial	Deposition of coarse volcanic rich (> MgO and < K ₂ O) fluvio-glacial sediments. A strong rise in river bed level due to the large sediment flux from melting glaciers.
Inter-glacial	Predominantly incision with temporary deposition of sandy sediment with a low volcanic component (< MgO and > K ₂ O).

This simplified model has some resemblance with a model where the general textural characteristics of terrace sediments are related to climatic environments (Texier & Raynal, 1984). Our

terrace litho-stratigraphic reconstruction also shows that the Interglacial Holocene terrace sediments have a finer texture than the coarse Glacial and Late Glacial sediments. But within our model the most important changes in the Allier system are sediment composition changes induced by glacier melting on the Mt. Dore and Cantal at the end of the Late Pleniglacial, a factor not considered in the simpler model of Texier and Raynal (1984).

2.3 TRACHYTIC PUMICE CLASTS IN MIDDLE PLEISTOCENE ALLIER TERRACE DEPOSITS: A CHRONOSTRATIGRAPHIC MARKER.

A. Veldkamp & A.G. Jongmans

Abstract

Trachytic pumice clasts with similar characteristics as pumice of the Sancy volcano at Neschers have been found at different sites in the 65 m (Va) terrace of the Allier, implying a maximum age for this terrace level of 800,000 years. Micromorphology of an intercalated paleosol and kryoturbatic features indicate that Va sediments have known at least one glacial/interglacial cycle before dissection of the Va level took place. By using the pumice clasts as a stratigraphic marker a reconstruction of the longitudinal profile of the Va level was made. This reconstruction shows that the Randan region has been relatively uplifted, while the Lezoux section has been subsided after dissection of the Va level.

2.3.1. Introduction

Fluvial terraces are commonly correlated on account of their relative altitude or sediment composition. In the Allier basin (Limagne, France., Fig. 2.3.1.), a first detailed terrace correlation was made for the geological map of Maringues (Jeambrun et al., 1980). The distinguished terrace levels were based on their relative altitude and general sediment composition. As in most other fluvial systems the stratigraphy of the Allier terraces is far from uniform. In the Allier section South of Clermont Ferrand which was studied by Van Dorsser (1969), it was almost impossible to demonstrate differences in heavy mineralogical sand composition for the different terraces. Pastre (1987) who extensively studied the sand mineralogy of the different Allier terrace sediments adapted the existing terrace classification almost purely based on sand mineralogy. He also established the chronology and ages of the terrace sands by correlating their heavy mineral composition with the mineralogy of known major volcanic events.

We studied the Va (Jeambrun et al., 1980) terrace of the Allier, which has an altitude of approximately 65 m above present river bed, along a stretch of 40 km, from Clermont Ferrand near the village of Beauregard l'Evêque to Vichy (Fig. 2.3.1.).

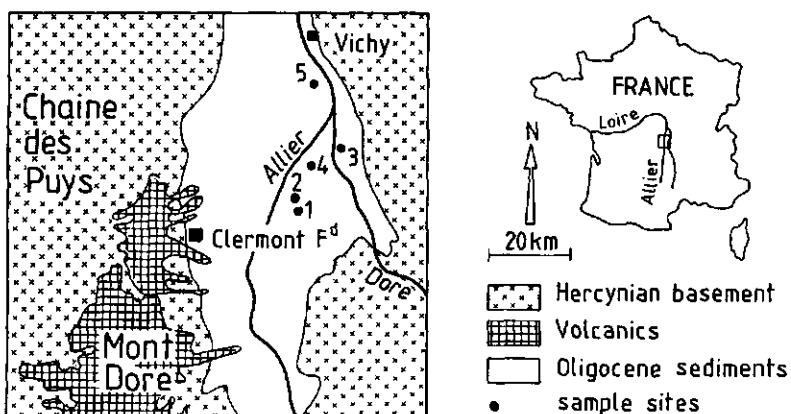


Figure 2.3.1. Map with sample sites

The average Va gravel composition, 50% basalts, 5% granites, 5% metamorphic rocks and 40% quartz, reflects the different lithologies within the Allier basin (Larue, 1977; Bout, 1963; Van Dorsser, 1969). Mineralogical sand compositions are given by Van Dorsser (1969), Rudel (1963), Pelletier (1971), Pastre (1987) and Tourenq (1986) and bulk geochemical compositions by Kroonenberg et al. (1988) and Veldkamp & Kroonenberg (1989). The age of the Va terrace was established at one million years based on sand mineralogy (Pastre, 1987) .

It was Pastre (1987) who observed pumice clasts at one site in the Va terrace level (at Saint-Sylvestre-Pragoulin, Pastre, 1987, p. 500). We found more pumice clasts in the sandy units of the Va terrace level at five widely separated sites. By comparing the pumice characteristics we conclude that this pumice originates from a single trachytic source eruption from the Sancy volcano approximately 800.000 years ago, implying a considerable younger maximum age for the Va terrace level as given by Pastre (1987).

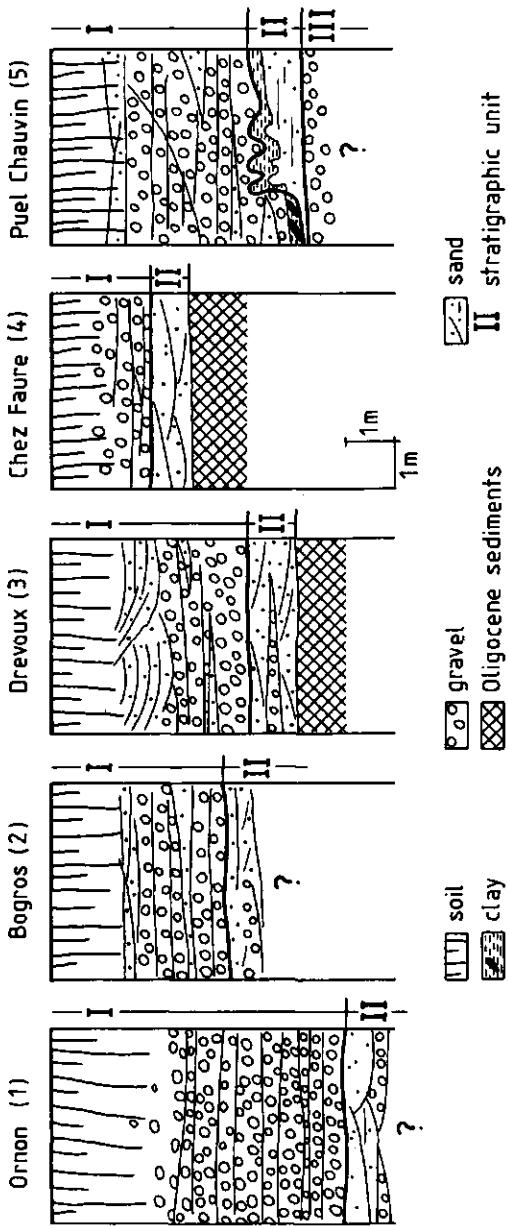


Figure 2.3.2. Terrace stratigraphy of sampled sites in Fva terrace

From five profiles in the Va terrace undisturbed samples were taken (Fig. 2.3.1., 2.3.2. and Table 2.3.1) for mineralogical and micromorphological examination. To enable a more detailed reconstruction of the Va terrace in terms of chronology and climatic environment, a kryoturbated paleosol was studied in more detail. Thin sections (10*10 cm) were made and described following the terminology of Bullock et al. (1985). Mineral countings (n=150) were performed in these thin sections.

site name	X-coor.	Ycoor.
Ornon	528.8	5078.8
Bogros	527.9	5079.7
Drevoux	535.5	5085.7
Chez Faure	532.0	5085.9
Puel Chauvin	533.2	5096.4

Table 2.3.1. Map coordinates of sample sites.

2.3.2. Stratigraphic marker

Terrace stratigraphy

The stratigraphy of the Va terrace sediments is based on field observations and micromorphological examinations. Four different lithological units are distinguished, from top to bottom.

Unit I, occurs in all 5 profiles and commonly consists of a 4 m thick gravel unit in which basaltic clasts dominate. Unit I facies indicate a braided gravel river. A planosol (FAO, 1974) has been developed in the upper two metres of all profiles (Feijtel et al., 1988).

Unit II, underlies unit I and predominantly consists of sands with many trachytic rock fragments and pumice fragments. Unit II facies suggest a sandy braided system. This unit has an average thickness of 1 metre. The pumice fragments are rounded and found

in clayey and loamy units or as pure pumice layers of several centimetres in major sand bodies. The best location to study the pumice macromorphologically is in the gravel pit near Ornon where pumice layers are exposed at the pit floor near the groundwater table.

Unit III, underlies unit II, and consists of basalt rich gravel. This unit of at least half a metre is only found in the Puel Chauvin profile. The facies of this unit suggest a similar river type as with the unit I, a braided gravel river.

Unit O, consists of Oligocene clayey sediments which form the base for all the Va terrace sediments. This unit is only well exposed in two excavations.

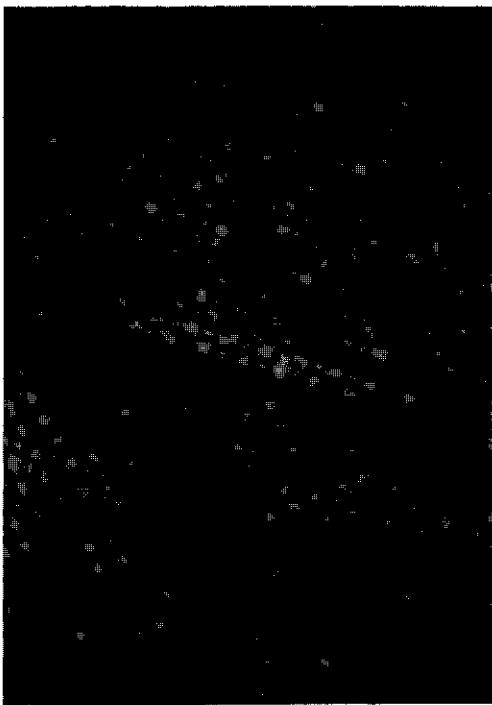
2.3.3. Pumice

In thin sections of all the five profiles the pumice fragments are fine grained hypocrystalline to holohyaline, with varying content of phenocrysts of feldspar (predominantly K-feldspar and albite, 20-500 µm), biotite, green and brown clinopyroxenes, brown amphibole, sphene (20-200 µm), and opaque minerals (20-40 µm). The pumice shows a vesicular texture with numerous spherical to ellipsoidal shaped holes, discontinuous wavy laminated oriented in a longitudinal section (Photos I and II in Fig. 2.3.3.). The pumice has a trachytic chemical composition and shows in-situ alteration and clay neoformation within the fragments (Veldkamp & Jongmans, 1990).

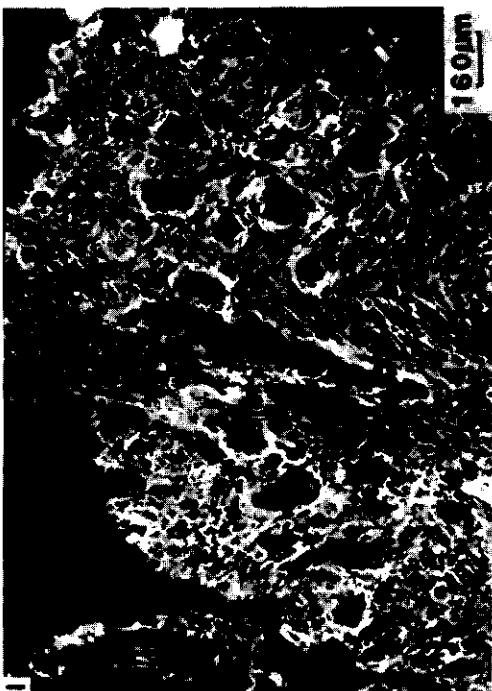
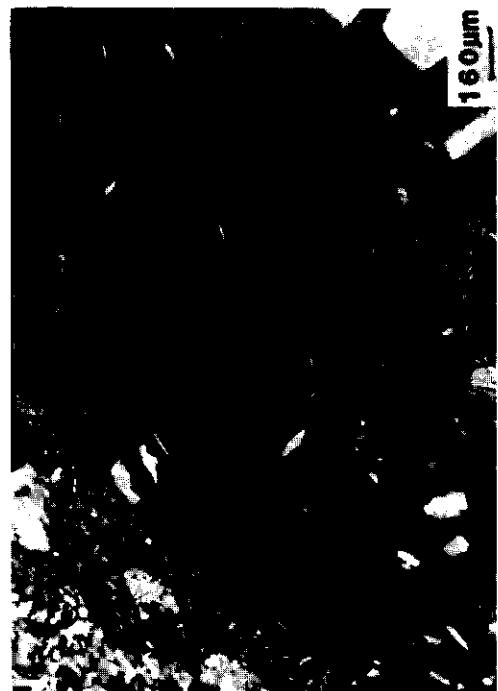
2.3.4. Correlation of pumice with dated Sancy eruptions

Micromorphological and mineralogical (Table 2.3.2.) observations of the Va pumice show a uniform composition and texture of the pumice fragments from the different sample locations.

The occurrence of one type of pumice in similar stratigraphic units at more than hundred kilometres from the eruption centre (Sancy volcano) suggests that the Va pumice can be correlated to one major eruption, and can be used as stratigraphic marker.



PPL



XPL

Figure 2.3.3.

Pumice fragment of Neschers (Photo I) and pumice fragment from unit II of Ornon (Photo II).

Only a few major trachytic volcanic phases are known as possible source for the pumice clasts, the ignimbrite of Rioubes ($\pm 900,000$ years BP) and the ignimbrite of Neschers ($\pm 800,000$ years BP) (Besson et al., 1977; Chambaudet & Couthures, 1981; Ly, 1982; Pastre, 1987).

Mineral	Fva pumice Ornon	Fva pumice Puel Chauvin	Neschers pumice (Pastre, 1987)	Rioubes pumice (Pastre, 1987)
Zircon	1.0%	0.5%	0.5%	0.2%
Sphene	18.5%	20.0%	23.0%	24.0%
Brown amphibole	6.0%	8.0%	8.0%	2.0%
Green clinopyroxene	65.0%	64.5%	63.5%	68.8%
Brown clinopyroxene	6.0%	5.0%	3.5%	-
Apatite	1.5%	0.5%	1.5%	2.8%
Other	2.0%	1.5%	-	2.2%

Table 2.3.2. Percentage of heavy minerals in Fva pumice (Ornon and Puel Chauvin), Neschers pumice and Rioubes pumice.

Heavy mineral composition of the pumice fragments in the Ornon and Puel Chauvin profiles are compared with the two potential source types in Table 2.3.2. Biotite content was excluded to facilitate comparison. The occurrence of brown clinopyroxene in the Va pumice excludes the trachytic ignimbrite of Rioubes as source eruption. As there is a fairly good similarity between the Va and Neschers pumice composition, the Va pumice fragments are thought to belong to the Neschers generation. Consequently the age of the pumice containing sediments (unit II) can be considered at about 800,000 years. This maximum terrace level age is partly in accordance with the chronology of Larue (1979), but is much younger than the age estimate of Pastre (1987).

2.3.5. Paleoenvironment

Micromorphology of paleosol

The Puel Chauvin profile near Randan displays all stratigraphic units including a kryoturbated clayey band in unit II. The less weathered and kryoturbated parts show that the clayey layer was originally a fine layered sediment. The clayey band has a distinct angular blocky structure in a greyish (10 YR 5/1) clayey groundmass, indicating the formation of a well developed physicogenic structure. Channels, surrounded by porostriated b-fabrics and the occurrence of loose continuous excremental infillings suggest root and faunal activity. Walls of vughs and chambers demonstrate predominantly lenticular prints, indicating a former growing of euhedral masses of lenticular crystallaria, possible gypsum, in these voids (Porta & Herrero, 1990). Such gypsum formation is known from other paleosols in the Massif Central (Pierre, 1989).

Occurrence of yellow non laminated isotropic and greenish yellow anisotropic speckled oriented clay coatings (Feijtel et al., 1989; Jongmans et al., 1990) in the sandy parts of unit II indicates weathering of the pumice fragments and neoformation of clay. Since the described weathering features are not noticed in the overlying deposits of unit I it can be concluded that before unit II was kryoturbated and buried by unit I, a paleosol was formed in the sediments of unit II.

The main soil forming processes in this paleosol were in-situ weathering of pumice and trachytic rock fragments, neoformation of clay, biological activity and solution of crystallaria. These processes suggest that after and probably during the pumice deposition, a temperate climate prevailed. This environment with an interglacial signature was followed by a cold climatic period during which peri-glacial conditions caused the observed strong kryoturbation of the upper parts of unit II.

The other four profiles have also weathering features in their unit II sediments. But the absence of distinguishable differences

between weathering features in unit I and unit II makes the recognition of other paleosols difficult.

2.3.6. Terrace chronology Va

During deposition of the Weichselian terrace sediments the majority of the basaltic gravels were deposited at the end of a glacial as a result of glacier melting on the higher parts in the Allier basin (Bout, 1963; Kroonenberg, et al., 1988). Assuming similar depositional mechanisms for the Va terrace sediments the gravelly basaltic rich unit I is thought to be deposited at the end of a glacial period too. After deposition, dissection took place under more temperate climatic conditions, causing the formation of the Va terrace level.

On account of these observations and assumptions the following tentative chronology for the events of the Va sediments can be reconstructed :

- Fluvial deposition of pumice rich sandy sediments (unit II) took place around 800.000 years ago. The roundness of the trachytic fragments and pumice clasts indicate that these sediments have been fluvially transported before sedimentation. The deposition of these sandy sediments seems not directly related to climatic environment.
- After deposition, these sediments were weathered under temperate conditions (paleosol unit II).
- Next, climate shifted to periglacial conditions during which a strong kryoturbation of the existing soil took place (kryoturbated paleosol unit II). At other sites the unit II sediments were partly or completely eroded.
- At the end of a glacial period the remaining kryoturbated paleosol was covered by basalt-rich gravels (unit I).
- These sediments were incised under more temperate conditions causing the formation of the Va terrace level.

As the Va terrace sediments were subjected to at least one glacial/interglacial cycle, dissection of the Va level must have taken place considerably later than 800.000 years.

2.3.7. Tectonic implications

Using the pumice clasts as a chronostratigraphic marker a more reliable reconstruction of the longitudinal Va terrace profile can be made than on the base of topography alone. In order to reconstruct the longitudinal Va profile, the surface altitude of the studied profiles from the 1:25.000 topographical maps were used (Fig. 2.3.4.). The pumice layers are indicated individually. The pumice site described by Pastre (1987) downstream of Puel Chauvin is shown as well. Based on its similar stratigraphic position we include this apparently identical pumice marker horizon in our reconstructed longitudinal profile. The oligocene/terrace sediment boundary is very irregular and therefore not considered. The profile of the actual Allier river bed is very regular in the studied Allier section, and therefore a relative longitudinal Va profile is presented (Fig. 2.3.4.).

relative longitudinal profile Fva (Fva altitude - Fz altitude)

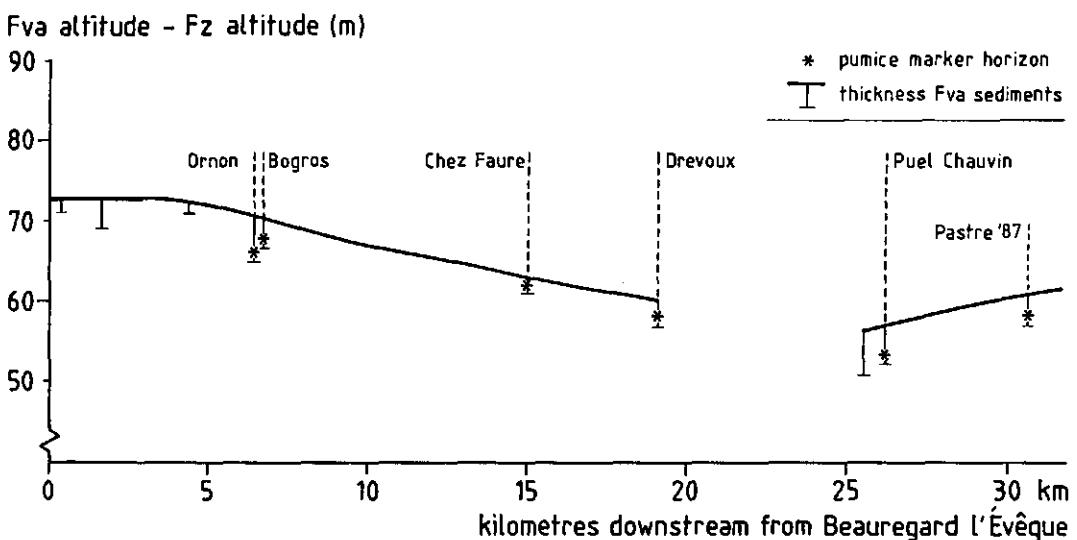


Figure 2.3.4. Longitudinal profile of the relative altitude of the Fva terrace level.

Near Clermont Ferrand the Va terrace level runs parallel to the actual riverbed, but more downstream the relative altitude decreases steadily. This gradual decrease in relative altitude in the longitudinal profile was also reported by Giot et al., (1978). North of the Allier/Dore confluence, the relative altitude of the Va terrace increases steadily. The scale and changes in the relative altitude clearly indicate that postdepositional tectonic disturbance of Va sediments took place. The Randan region has been uplifted while the Lezoux region has been subsided after dissection of the Va level. These vertical movements seem simultaneous and related to rift fault movements in the Limagne rift valley. Similar tectonic uplift was proposed by Larue (1979), who explained the course diversion of the Morge, an Allier tributary, by tectonism. The Va terrace of the Morge is found along the old course, while Fw is the oldest terrace level along the actual Morge, suggesting an uplift of the Randan region after the Va and before the W sediment deposition. Along the Allier irregular longitudinal profiles are only found for the V and older terraces, while the W and younger terraces show a very regular longitudinal profile. Our observations, confirm those of Larue (1979) and Giot et al., (1978) indicating a regional tectonic disturbance after the incision of the Va (< 800 ky) level and before deposition of W terrace sediments.

2.3.8. Conclusions

Pumice of the Neschers generation serves as a chronostratigraphic marker in the Allier Va terrace level. Va terrace sediments were subjected to at least one glacial/interglacial cycle before dissection of the Va level took place. A geographical reconstruction of the Va terrace level with the stratigraphic marker confirms that the Randan region has known a relative uplift and the northern Lezoux section a subsidence, after dissection of the Va terrace level.

SAND BULK GEOCHEMISTRY

As Quaternary research is more and more interested in the quantitative aspects of major environmental changes it will be necessary to develop new quantitative methods. A way to determine quantitative paleohydrological changes is by studying the changes in bulk composition of fluvial sediments (Kroonenberg, 1990). As it is rather cumbersome to derive a bulk composition from the mineralogical composition of separate fractions and point-counting of thin sections is time consuming, it was decided to measure bulk sand composition geochemically.

3.1 THE APPLICATION OF BULK SAND GEOCHEMISTRY IN QUATERNARY RESEARCH. A METHODOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE ALLIER AND DORE TERRACE SANDS.

A. Veldkamp & S.B. Kroonenberg

Abstract

The bulk geochemistry of unconsolidated sands of river terraces in two drainage basins of contrasting geology in the Limagne rift valley, France, has been studied. Data processing and interpretation was done with multivariate statistics, notably factor analysis. In the Allier basin, underlain by volcanic rocks and crystalline basement, the abundance of basaltic rock fragments causes significantly higher bulk concentrations of TiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , MgO , CaO , P_2O_5 , V , Cr , Ni , Zn , Sr , Zr and Nb . In the Dore basin, underlain by crystalline basement alone, sands have a significantly higher SiO_2 , K_2O , Rb and Pb content, originating from quartz, K-feldspars and mica's. Comparison between different terrace levels shows the impact of weathering and changes in supplied sediment composition over time. Approximately 65% of the total variance in the basaltic element content in the Allier terrace sands can be explained by the combined effect of parent material and weathering. The effect of grain size on sediment composition is only significant for Al_2O_3 , Na_2O and Rb content in the Allier and for TiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 and Nb content in the Dore sands. Approximately 60% of the total variability in these elements is grain size related. These data show that bulk geochemical studies of Quaternary terrace sands can provide valuable data complementary to traditional sedimentary petrographic research. They also indicate that data obtained during mineral exploration are potentially applicable in Quaternary research.

3.1.1. Introduction

Fluvial terraces result mainly from a complex interplay of changes in climate, tectonism and base level (Green and Mc

Gregor, 1987; Boll et al., 1988; Veldkamp and Vermeulen, 1989). These external factors are directly or indirectly reflected in the composition of the resultant sediments. Sediment composition is also controlled by local factors, such as sorting processes, post depositional weathering etc. Major changes within a fluvial system do not only change sediment granulometry and mineralogy but also the quantity of sediment delivered to the river. The total sample composition quantitatively reflects such changes. As Quaternary research is more directed toward the quantitative aspects of major environmental changes it will be necessary to determine such changes by studying the bulk composition of fluvial sediments (Kroonenberg, 1990). It is rather cumbersome to derive a bulk composition from the mineralogical composition of separate fractions or from time consuming point-counting of thin sections. Therefore we decided to measure bulk sand composition geochemically.

Although it is a common practice in exploration geochemistry to sample only one size fraction from stream sediments in order to obtain measurable and comparable results (Plant et al., 1988), we use geochemical measurements for bulk sand samples of all size fractions.

As a case study the Allier and Dore basins in the Massif Central were selected as two basins having different basin geology and consequently different sand compositions.

3.1.2. Materials and Methods

The Allier was sampled in 14 locations (total of 57 samples) by Kroonenberg et al. (1988), along a section between the confluences with the Couze Chambon in the south and the Dore in the north. The sample locations are situated in the present bed (Z) and four different terrace levels (Y, X, W, V) (Figure 3.1.1). Along a stretch of 30 km along the Dore river, 43 sand samples were taken at 12 sites from the same terrace levels as sampled along the Allier. The Dore was sampled from the confluence with the Allier up to its emergence from the rift valley scarp. In order to include the effect of sorting, 2 - 6 samples of different grain size distribution were taken from each

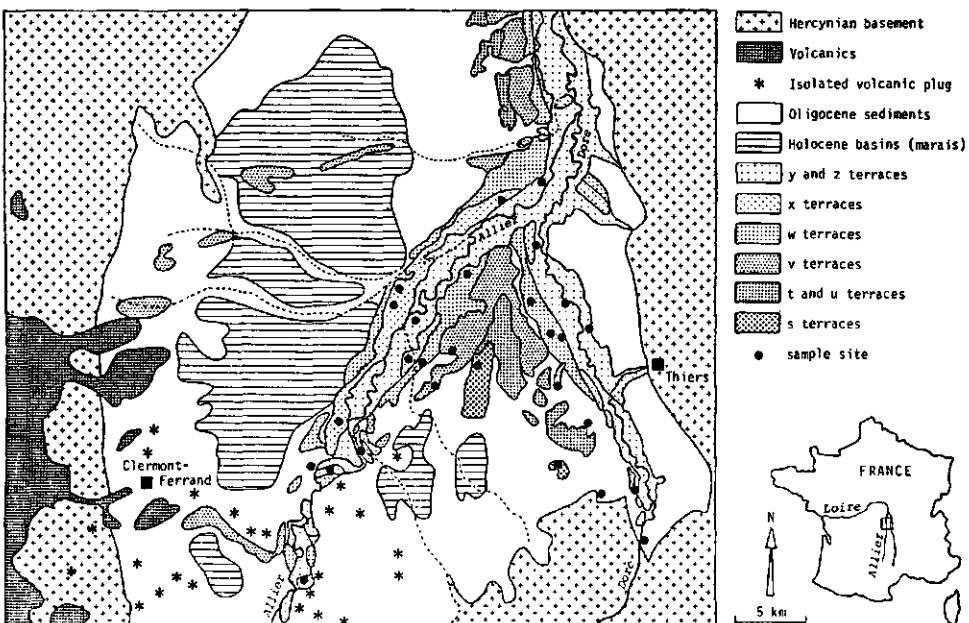


Figure 3.1.1. Geological sketch map and sample locations in the Allier and Dore basins.

sampling spot.

Three physical parameters were considered during sampling: RELALT (altitude relative to the present river bed), UPSTR (upstream distance from confluence Allier/Dore) and MEDIAN (median of grain size of analyzed samples). This was done in an attempt to evaluate the importance of lateral and downstream sorting and postdepositional weathering irrespective of the impact of climatic change and tectonism. Care was taken to sample sand from foreset laminae in small-scale cross-bedded sets, in order to avoid concentrations of heavy minerals in horizontally laminated lag deposits. Samples were taken as deep as possible to avoid effects of soil formation.

In the laboratory, detailed granulometrical analyses were carried out for 13 fractions. The $<16 \mu\text{m}$, <0.053 , $0.053-0.075$, $0.075-0.106$, $0.106-0.15$, $0.15-0.212$, $0.212-0.3$, $0.3-0.425$, $0.425-0.6$, $0.6-0.85$, $0.85-1$, $1-2$, $2-4.8$, >4.8 (mm) fractions were determined. The median grain size was determined from cumulative frequency plots. Median grain sizes ranged from $210 \mu\text{m}$ to 2000

$3\mu\text{m}$. Part of the sample, was separated with a sample splitter. Organic matter, calcium carbonate, free iron and all material $<16\mu\text{m}$ was removed by standard methods. This allowed direct comparison of chemical composition with optically determinable mineralogy and allowed us to avoid the effect of accumulated secondary products. Organic matter and manganese coatings were destroyed with H_2O_2 and 'free' iron was extracted with Na-dithionite-EDTA at pH 4.5. Although the clay content was measured, the fraction $<16\mu\text{m}$ was not geochemically analyzed. In few cases this fraction ($<16\mu\text{m}$) amounted to more then a few percent by weight of the total sample.

After pretreatment, 0.6 g of the sample was separated with a micro-sample splitter, fused with 2,4 lithium tetraborate and analyzed. The major elements SiO_2 , TiO_2 , Al_2O_3 , Fe_2O_3 , MgO , CaO , Na_2O , K_2O and P_2O_5 and minor elements V, Cr, Ni, Cu, Zn, Ga, Rb, Sr, Zr, Nb, La, Ba and Pb were measured with X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy on a Philips XRF assembly. The system was calibrated using USGS geochemical standards as listed by Abbey (1980, p. 16). The mean, maximum and minimum bulk concentrations of the elements in Dore and Allier samples are listed in Table 3.1.1.

Statistical treatments were performed with SPSSpc (Norusis, 1986). The significance of differences in mean element abundances between the Allier and Dore groups were tested by a Students t-test. The interpretation of this complex multi-variable data set was carried out using factor analysis. Factor analysis examines the interrelationships among the variables (elements) in an effort to find a new set of variables (factors) fewer in number than the original set of variables, which express that which is common among the original variables (Dillon and Goldstein, 1984). A factor analysis is presented as a matrix giving the factor loadings of each variable. A factor loading indicates the relative contribution of a variable to the factors made; the larger the loading the more important the variable in the interpretation of the factor. The factors are rotated with a varimax rotation, to allow better group identification and interpretation. Multiple linear regression analysis was done with the stepwise methodology.

Var.	LLD	Dore			Allier		
		Mean	Minimum value	Maximum value	Mean	Minimum value	Maximum value
SiO ₂	.007	81.09	69.42	89.00	74.95	63.01	85.02
TiO ₂	.01	0.14	0.02	0.53	0.78	0.27	1.78
Al ₂ O ₃	.075	10.15	5.25	16.36	11.63	7.84	15.61
Fe ₂ O ₃	.003	0.65	0.13	1.91	3.27	0.82	7.87
MgO	.01	0.30	0.06	0.95	1.60	0.22	4.60
CaO	.0014	0.26	0.01	0.98	2.07	0.49	5.38
Na ₂ O	.01	1.68	0.28	3.42	2.23	1.50	3.63
K ₂ O	.006	4.32	3.21	5.22	2.88	1.92	3.80
P ₂ O ₅	.01	0.06	0.03	0.13	0.19	0.06	0.44
V	4	25	5	57	99	22	232
Cr	14	10	10	10	33	10	148
Ni	2	2	2	2	21	2	82
Zn	1	7	1	85	26	1	76
Ga	4	11	5	18	12	8	16
Rb	1	147	106	197	105	54	218
Sr	1	146	75	208	282	149	531
Zr	2	63	7	349	112	33	215
Nb	4	5	3	18	11	5	21
Ba	36	657	446	802	676	506	879
La	7	18	6	73	22	6	68
Pb	1	20	10	29	11	10	29
sand fractions:							
<4.8	0.1	11.0	0.5	35.5	2.0	0.1	13.1
2-4.8	0.1	18.2	0.5	38.5	3.6	0.1	23.0
1-2	0.1	15.9	1.0	28.0	11.9	0.1	47.9
0.85-1	0.1	14.8	1.0	31.0	5.6	0.1	16.2
0.6-0.85	0.1	10.5	1.0	32.0	17.3	0.5	41.8
0.425-0.6	0.1	7.3	1.0	28.0	18.1	1.5	51.9
0.3-0.425	0.1	5.5	0.8	17.0	16.8	2.6	43.2
0.212-0.3	0.1	2.8	0.5	19.0	12.4	0.8	47.0
0.15-0.212	0.1	1.8	0.5	29.0	7.1	0.1	35.5
0.106-0.15	0.1	0.9	0.5	6.0	3.0	0.1	22.9
0.075-0.106	0.1	0.8	0.5	4.5	1.0	0.1	12.4
0.053-0.075	0.1	0.8	0.5	4.5	0.4	0.1	5.4
<0.053	0.1	0.9	0.5	5.5	0.6	0.1	7.6

Table 3.1.1

Means, maximum and minimum values of major and minor elements and grain size classes of the Dore (32 samples) and Allier (49 samples) sands. SiO₂ to BaO and in weight percentages of oxides, Rb to Nb in weight ppm of the elements, size fractions (mm) in %.

3.1.3. Results

Mean bulk geochemical composition of the Allier and Dore sands is given in Table 3.1.1. The average amounts of TiO_2 , Al_2O_3 , Fe_2O_3 , MgO , CaO , Na_2O , P_2O_5 , V, Cr, Ni, Zn, Sr, Zr and Nb are higher for the Allier sands whereas SiO_2 , K_2O , Rb and Pb are higher for the Dore sands. The differences in mean element abundances between the Allier and Dore data are given in Table 3.1.2. In spite of high standard deviations, the differences between the elemental composition of sands from both rivers are significant with the exception of Ga, Ba and La.

As it is difficult to interpret and compare the raw Allier and Dore bulk sand compositions, a factor analysis with componential extraction was done for each basin (Table. 3.1.3). The input data set for each basin included not only the bulk geochemical composition but also the physical parameters RELALT, UPSTR and MEDIAN.

Var.	Allier		Dore		T-test 2-Tail Prob.
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation	
SiO_2	74.95	5.52	81.09	4.47	.000
TiO_2	0.78	0.40	0.14	0.11	.000
Al_2O_3	11.63	1.61	10.15	2.49	.003
Fe_2O_3	3.27	1.75	0.65	0.45	.000
MgO	1.60	1.13	0.30	0.24	.000
CaO	2.07	1.26	0.26	0.26	.000
Na_2O	2.23	0.31	1.68	0.87	.001
K_2O	2.88	0.39	4.32	0.37	.000
P_2O_5	0.19	0.10	0.06	0.03	.000
V	99	49	25	11	.000
Cr	33	37	10	0	---
Ni	21	19	2	0	---
Zn	26	23	7	15	.000
Ga	12	2	11	3	.079
Rb	105	30	147	23	.000
Sr	282	92	146	35	.000
Zr	112	51	63	64	.000
Nb	11	4	5	3	.000
Ba	676	60	657	69	.187
La	22	15	18	15	.273
Pb	11	4	20	5	.000

--- = below detection limit, st. dev. = 0.

Table 3.1.2 Comparison of the mean element concentrations of Allier and Dore by Students t-test. SiO_2 to P_2O_5 in weight percentages of oxides, V to Pb in weight ppm of the elements.

var.	Allier			Dore				Com.
	Fact 1 58.3%	Fact 2 13.8%	Fact 3 6.1%	Com.	Fact 1 51.6%	Fact 2 11.4%	Fact 3 8.3%	
Rel. alt.		0.72	0.63	0.93				0.87
UPST	0.50		0.50					0.05
Median		-0.79	0.63			-0.55		0.41
SiO ₂	-0.87		0.98	-0.83				0.98
TiO ₂	0.96		0.96			0.79		0.90
Al ₂ O ₃		0.76	0.93	0.87				0.95
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.96		0.95	0.74	0.52			0.88
MgO	0.95		0.94	0.77				0.86
CaO	0.94		0.95	0.83				0.93
Na ₂ O		0.80	0.76	0.94				0.95
K ₂ O	-0.55	0.61	0.84			0.59	0.81	0.73
V	0.91		0.89			--	--	0.58
Cr	0.84		0.84	--	--	--	--	
Ni	0.87		0.76	--	--	--	--	
Ga		0.59	0.55	0.77				0.80
Rb		0.82	0.79				0.83	0.83
Sr	0.91		0.91	0.93				0.91
Zr	0.89		0.93			0.90		0.88

Table 3.1.3 Factor analysis including physical parameters, bulk geochemistry Allier and Dore sands.

Interpretation of Allier data

The Allier sand data set can be described by three significant factors (Table 3.1.3), together explaining 78.2% of total bulk geochemical variance (cf. Kroonenberg et al., 1988).

Factor 1

Factor 1 explains 58.3% of the total variance, contains the variables UPSTR, TiO₂, Fe₂O₃, MgO, CaO, Ni, Cr, V, Sr, Zr, -K₂O and -SiO₂. The contributing elements are known to occur in many different minerals of the Allier sands, notably olivine, augite, amphiboles, calcic plagioclase and Fe-Ti opaque minerals. The distribution of the elements between these minerals can be established in an approximate way from general crystal-chemical considerations and published mineral analyses from other sites.

Olivine, augite, amphiboles and plagioclases are common constituents of alkali basaltic rocks such as abound in the Central Massif. Well-rounded fragments of dense alkali-basaltic lavas, with a specific gravity around 3 g/cm^3 , form the bulk of the heavy fraction of the Allier sands, and may constitute up to 50% by weight of the total sediment (Kroonenberg et al, 1988). It can be expected that this alkali-basaltic fraction strongly determines the variance in geochemical properties of the Allier sands. Therefore Factor 1 is interpreted as an alkali basaltic factor. The positive factor loading of UPSTR might indicate a downstream backlagging of alkali basalt grains due to density sorting as reported by Davies et al. (1978).

Factor 2

Factor 2, explaining 13.8% of the total variance, includes the variables, MEDIAN, K_2O , Na_2O , Al_2O_3 , Rb and Ga. The contributing elements are fractionated by alkali feldspars and mica's (K, Na, Si, Al). Rb substitutes for K especially in mica's, and Ga for Al. Therefore these micro-elements are logical constituents of this factor.

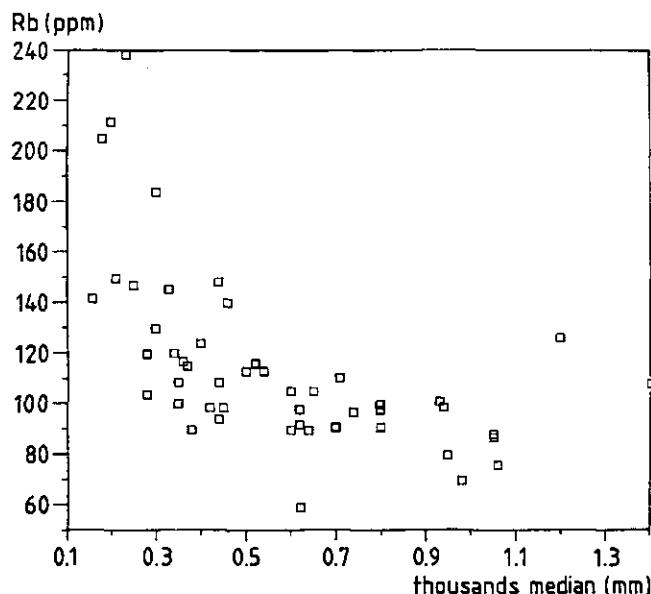


Figure 3.1.2. Bivariate plot of Rb (ppm) with Median of grain size distribution of Allier sands. Data points are indicated by terrace symbols.

As these minerals may be derived both from the crystalline basement as from acid volcanic rocks, factor 2 is interpreted as an alkali feldspar-mica factor without further specification. The negative MEDIAN factor loading indicates that variation at single sample sites by lateral sorting is probably related to the specific hydraulic properties of mica's and feldspars. This is well illustrated by Figure 3.1.2, in which Rb as a typical mica element is plotted against MEDIAN. Mineralogical analysis of samples of different grain size confirm these relations (Kroonenberg et al., 1988).

Factor 3

Factor 3, which explains 6.1% of the total variance, only contains RELALT. This suggests that bulk geochemical variation between terrace levels is partly independent from other variables, and probably reflects long-term changes in sediment supply.

Summarizing, the factor analysis indicates that variance of bulk geochemical properties of the Allier terrace sands is mainly due to an alkali basaltic component, which shows some longitudinal sorting, and to a lesser extent to local lateral sorting effects, especially of mica's and feldspars, and long-term changes in sediment composition.

Interpretation of Dore data

The Dore data are also grouped into three significant factors explaining 71.3% of the total variance (Table 3.1.3).

Factor 1

Factor 1, explains 51.6% of the total variance, and contains RELALT, Al_2O_3 , Fe_2O_3 , MgO , CaO , Na_2O , Ga, Sr, and $-\text{SiO}_2$. This factor includes elements which are known to be found in plagioclases, amphiboles and augite as major rock-forming minerals. The positive RELALT loading indicates a decrease of the factor 1 elements in the higher Dore terraces (Figure 3.1.3). As the altitude criterium can be directly used as an age criterium, the RELALT factor loading indicates a decrease of the factor 1 elements with increasing age.

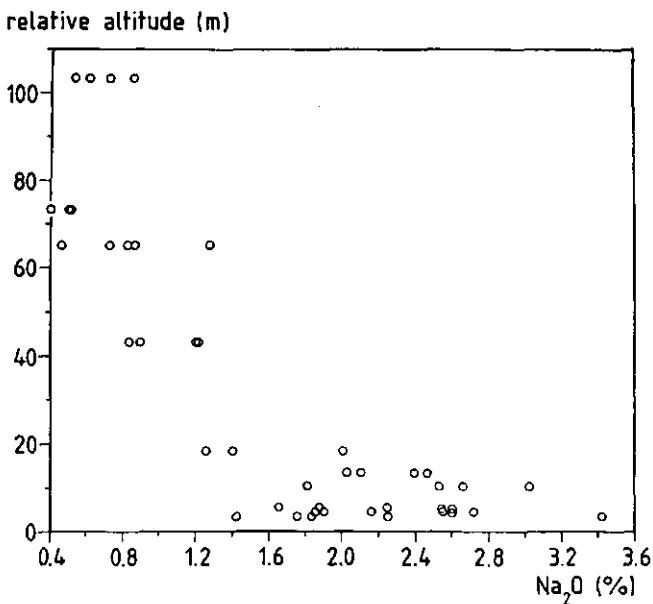


Figure 3.1.3. Bivariate plot of Na_2O (wt%) with relative altitude of Dore sands.

Since most elements of factor 1 are known as mobile with respect to weathering and predominantly occur in easily weathered minerals (Bear, 1964, Wedepohl, 1970) factor 1 can be considered as a weathering factor.

Factor 2

Factor 2, explaining 11.4% of the total variance, contains the variables MEDIAN, TiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , Zr and Nb. These elements are common in stable heavy minerals like magnetite, ilmenite, rutile and zircon. The interpretation of Factor 2 as a stable heavy mineral factor is supported by the negative MEDIAN loading, as these minerals are commonly concentrated in the finer sand fractions (Figure 3.1.4).

Factor 3

Factor 3, explaining 8.3% of the total variance, includes the elements K_2O , Rb, Ba, and Pb. These elements are fractionated by K-feldspars and mica's. Rb, Ba and Pb can substitute for K in these minerals. If these elements originate from mica's alone, a strong negative MEDIAN factor loading and Rb dependence would

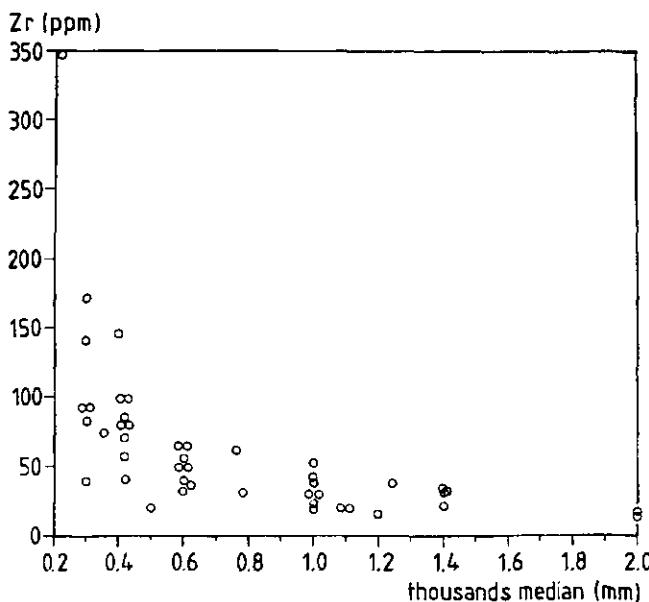


Figure 3.1.4. Bivariate plot of Zr (ppm) with Median of grain size distribution of Dore sands.

have been expected. However, as the median and Rb factor loadings are less than 0.5, the contribution of K-feldspar to Factor 3 is probably different from the influence of the mica component. Factor 3 is interpreted as a stable light mineral factor, related to crystalline rock fragments and fragments of large K-feldspar megacrysts from coarse porphyritic biotite granites common in the Dore drainage basin.

In summary, the Dore factors yield different conclusions than the Allier factors. The main part of the total variance of the geochemical properties reflects progressive weathering of the unstable minerals with increasing age of the sands. 11.4% of the total variance is caused by sorting of heavy minerals, while 8.3% of the total variance is determined by varying amounts of mica's and K-feldspars.

3.1.4. Regression with grain size data

Grain size and weathering are the main factors governing local bulk composition for both Allier and Dore sands. In order to

better assess the impact of these factors their effects were quantified by means of multiple linear regression.

Both Allier and Dore sands show approximately 10% of their total bulk geochemical variance is related to the median grain size of the sand sample. In three Dore grain size classes most measurements are below detection limit, and consequently have no normal distribution, these fractions, 0.053-0.075, 0.075-0.106 and 0.106-0.15 (mm), are excluded from further analysis and interpretation.

For each grain size related element a multiple linear regression model was made. From the twelve grain size classes, classes were selected with stepwise methodology as independent variables (Dillon and Goldstein, 1984).

Both Allier and Dore sands resulted in three significant models (at the 0.05 level). The standardized regression coefficients (Betas) and coefficients of determination (R^2) of the regression models are presented for each model (Table 3.1.4).

Elements (wt%)	R^2	fraction (mm)	Beta1 (-)	fraction (mm)	Beta2 (-)	fraction (mm)	Beta3 (-)
<hr/>							
Allier:							
Al ₂ O ₃	0.63	(0.212-0.15)	0.77	(0.85-0.6)	-0.27		
Na ₂ O	0.56	(0.212-0.15)	0.39	(0.85-0.6)	-0.69		
Rb	0.60	(0.212-0.15)	0.73				
Dore							
TiO ₂	0.66	(0.15-0.106)	0.67	(0.6-0.425)	0.38	(0.075-0.053)	0.37
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.55	(0.3-0.425)	0.40	(<0.053)			
Nb	0.78	(0.212-0.15)	0.79	(0.6-0.425)	0.31	(<0.053)	0.44
Zr	no significant model at the 0.05 level						

Table 3.1.4 Multiple linear regression models for grain size related elements, model fit (R^2) and standardized regression coefficients for the grain size fractions selected with step wise methodology.

A multiple regression on extracted components from the grain size data of both Allier and Dore samples resulted in similar regression models with comparable model fits, indicating that the role of collinearity is very limited.

3.1.5. Regression modelling of weathering effects

The Dore terrace sequence is strongly affected by weathering as reflected in almost 52% of the total geochemical variability. The weathering effect is not so apparent in the Allier sands. As Allier and Dore are both situated in the Limagne rift valley, Allier and Dore terraces should have experienced similar climatic conditions and hence a similar weathering trend.

The Allier data show that both clay content and content of factor 1 elemental ("basaltic") oxides (MgO for example) of the sands have a rather erratic behaviour within and between terrace levels (Figure. 3.1.5). This implies that neither basalt (parent material) nor clay (weathering product) content are simply related to terrace age, as might be expected in a chronosequence. Despite their unpredictable behaviour, "basaltic" oxides and clay content have an inverse semi-logarithmic relation (Figure. 3.1.6), suggesting a relationship between parent material and weathering.

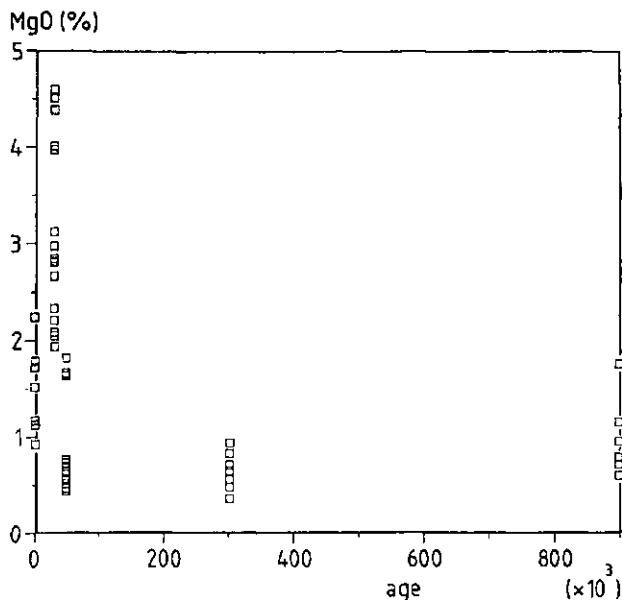


Figure 3.1.5. Measured Mg (Ox wt%) and age relationship (according to PASTIRE, 1986) in years in the Allier terrace sands.

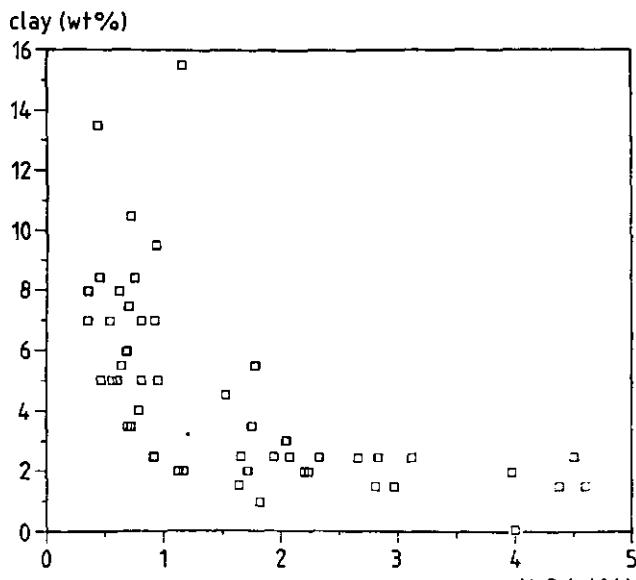


Figure 3.1.6. Measured Mg (Ox wt%) and Clay (wt%) relationship for the subsoil fluvial sands of the Allier.

In order to determine the effect of parent material in the Allier chronosequence a multiple regression analysis was carried out. Results showed actual Mg content with the independent contributions of (1) a clay formation factor, (2) a parent material factor and (3) their interaction factor.

The clay content seems related to the actual Mg content by a semi-logarithmic relationship and is transformed by a natural logarithm $\ln(\text{CLAY (wt\%)})$ (Figure. 3.1.6).

As independent parent material factor only the downstream compositional sorting variability of alkali basaltic rock fragments can be included (cf. Davies et al., 1978; Kroonenberg et al., 1988).

The interaction term is $\ln(\text{CLAY}) \cdot \text{UPSTREAM}$. A high contribution of this term will indicate a strong relationship between weathering and parent material composition.

In this way the following multiple regression model can be established to predict actual Mg content in MgO wt%.

$$Mg = \text{Const} + B_1 \text{UPSTREAM} + B_2 \ln(\text{CLAY}) + B_{1,2} (\text{UPSTREAM} \cdot \ln(\text{CLAY}))$$

The regression model is significant at the 0.05 level. Model fit expressed by the coefficient of determination (R^2) was 0.71. Similar regression models were made for the other basaltic elements Ti, Fe, Mn, Ca and P. All these regression models were significant at the 0.05 level and have model fits of about 0.65 (Table 3.1.5).

Elements	R^2	Beta ₁	Beta ₂	Beta _{1,2}
TiO ₂	0.59	0.19	0.70	-0.64
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.60	0.23	0.74	-0.64
MnO	0.63	0.09	0.68	-0.55
MgO	0.71	0.26	0.78	-0.75
CaO	0.66	0.29	0.75	-0.80
P ₂ O ₅	0.60	0.30	0.74	-0.76

Table 3.1.5 Multiple linear regression models for basaltic elements, model fit (R^2) and standardized regression coefficients.
 $wt\% \text{ basaltic element} = B_0 + B_1 * \ln(wt\% \text{CLAY}) + B_2 * \text{UPSTREAM(km)} + B_{1,2} * \ln(wt\% \text{CLAY}) * \text{UPSTREAM(km)}$

The good model fits and the high loading of the parent material/weathering interaction term show that the Allier sand composition is strongly affected by parent material controlled weathering. A result also found for gravel weathering in the Allier terraces (Veldkamp et al., 1990).

3.1.6. Discussion

The results show that several regional and local factors have a significant contribution to the actual bulk sand composition in the Allier and Dore drainage basins. The most important local factors are sorting processes and postdepositional weathering. The factors provenance and changes of sediment composition in time have a more regional character and are of interest for Quaternary research. The origin of the variability in bulk geochemistry will be discussed individually for each factor and

finally the value of the bulk geochemical methodology will be discussed in the conclusions.

Provenance

It was shown that TiO_2 , Al_2O_3 , Fe_2O_3 , MgO , CaO , Na_2O , P_2O_5 , V, Cr, Ni, Cu, Zn, Zr, and Sr levels are significantly higher in the Allier sediments, whereas SiO_2 , K_2O , Rb and Pb levels are significantly higher in the Dore sediments. These element abundances are evidently related to differences in sand provenance. The Dore sands derived from crystalline basement only, have higher levels of elements from quartz, K-feldspars and mica's (factor 3), while the Allier sands derived from both volcanic rocks and crystalline basement have higher amounts of elements of volcanic origin (factor 1). The occurrence of heavy minerals derived from volcanic ash in the Dore basin reported by various authors (Pelletier, 1971; Van Wijck, 1985; Etlicher et al., 1987), is not demonstrably reflected in the bulk geochemistry of the Dore sands.

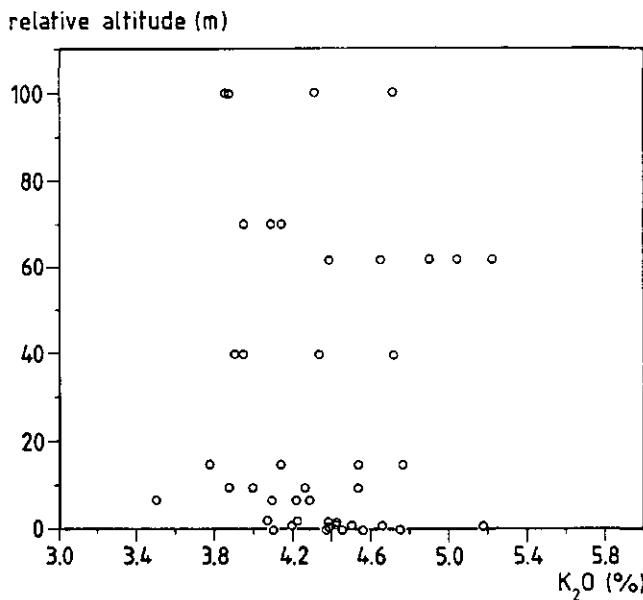


Figure 3.1.7. Bivariate plot of K₂O (wt%) with relative altitude of Dore sands.

Changes in sediment composition with time

The emergence of relative altitude as an independent factor in the Allier terraces is most probably caused by major changes in sediment supply or composition with time. Bout (1963) and Kroonenberg et al. (1988) proposed a relationship between climate (glaciated Cantal and Mt Dore) and sediment type (basalt content), large amounts of basalt are supplied to the Allier terrace sediments during a melting phase of the glaciers. Pastre (1986) suggested that not climate but volcanism is responsible for the sediment differences between the various terrace levels. In the largely unglaciated Dore basin where volcanism is absent, no such changes have been observed, as shown by the K₂O-Altitude diagram of Figure 3.1.7.

Sorting processes

The heavy mineral factor of the Dore and the alkali feldspar/mica factor of the Allier are grain size related and depend upon the local paleo-discharge during sedimentation. For both fluvial systems the local lateral sorting component is about 10% of the total variance in bulk geochemical characteristics. The sediments of Allier and Dore differ mainly in the elements for which grain size dependent relations are found (Allier: Al₂O₃, Na₂O, K₂O and Rb; Dore: TiO₂, Fe₂O₃, Nb and Zr). The main causes for these differences are probably the contrasting provenance. The standardized regression coefficients (Betas) of the multiple regression models, show high positive Betas for finer fractions and negative Betas for the coarser fractions. This suggests that the grain size related elements are predominantly present in the finer sand fractions.

This observation can easily be explained by the following processes and causes. Rb, a typical mica element, tends to concentrate in the fine sand fractions, due to the specific shape related hydraulic properties of mica's. Na₂O and Al₂O₃, originating from feldspars, are often reported to be more abundant in the finer sand fractions, due to selective abrasion (Riezebos, 1971; Basu, 1976; Odom et al., 1976; Davies et al., 1978; Potter, 1978; Pettijohn et al., 1987).

The enrichment of Ti, Zr, Nb and La (stable heavy minerals) in the finer Dore sands is related to the well known and often observed relationship of specific settling velocity with high densities and small primary grain sizes of these minerals.

The UPSTR factor loading of 0.5 in the main Allier factor, shows that there is a decrease of alkali-basaltic fragments downstream. Because no important tributaries occur in the region sampled, the downstream decrease can be explained by density sorting or by physical breakdown during transportation (Davies et al. 1978). A density sorting effect is supported by the large average bulk density of the alkali-basaltic fragments which is about 3 (g/cm³). The susceptibility of those fragments to physical breakdown is illustrated by the well-rounded shape of most alkali-basaltic grains. It is not certain which effect predominates.

Postdepositional weathering

In the Dore basin factor analysis indicates that the amount of mobile elements (Factor 1) decreases with terrace altitude, indicating progressive weathering of unstable minerals. Plots of individual Factor 1 elements against relative altitude (e.g. Na; Figure. 3.1.3) corroborate this. Mica-feldspar (Factor 3) elements such as K plotted against relative altitude (Figure. 3.1.7) show no significant change. This observation substantiates the relative immobility of K in the Dore sands.

In the Allier basin, however, no weathering trend is directly discernable from factor analysis, in spite of the high amount of easily weatherable volcanic material in the sediment and the many weathering phenomena (Jongmans et al., 1991). But multiple regression modelling of the weathering effects in the Allier bulk sand composition showed that the variability of the present "basalt" content is strongly related to parent material controlled weathering. The regression models of weathering for MgO and CaO have the best fit (highest R²) probably because they have easy weatherable mineral sources (olivine and Ca-plagioclases), in contrast to the other "basaltic" elements which

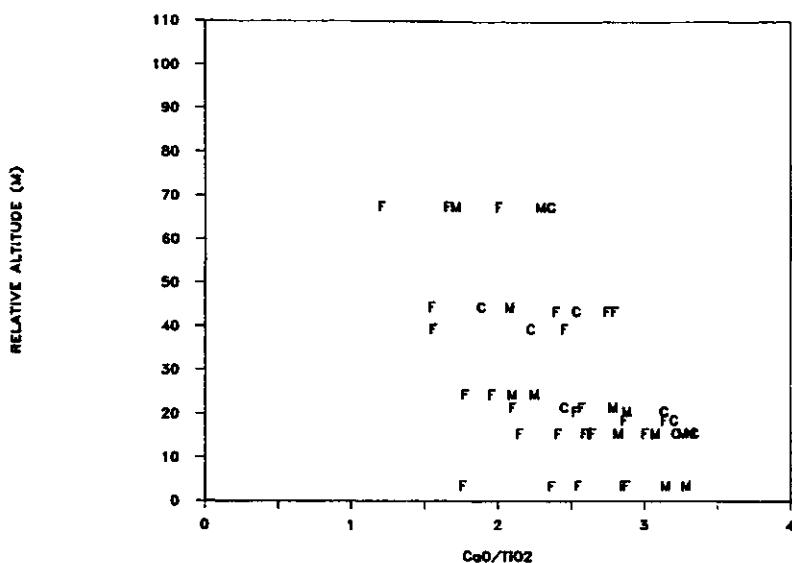


Figure 3.1.8. Bivariate plot of decreasing CaO/TiO₂ with relative altitude of Allier sands. Data labels indicate median of grain size distribution, C = coarse, 900–2000 µm; M = medium, 600–900 µm; F = fine, 210–600 µm.

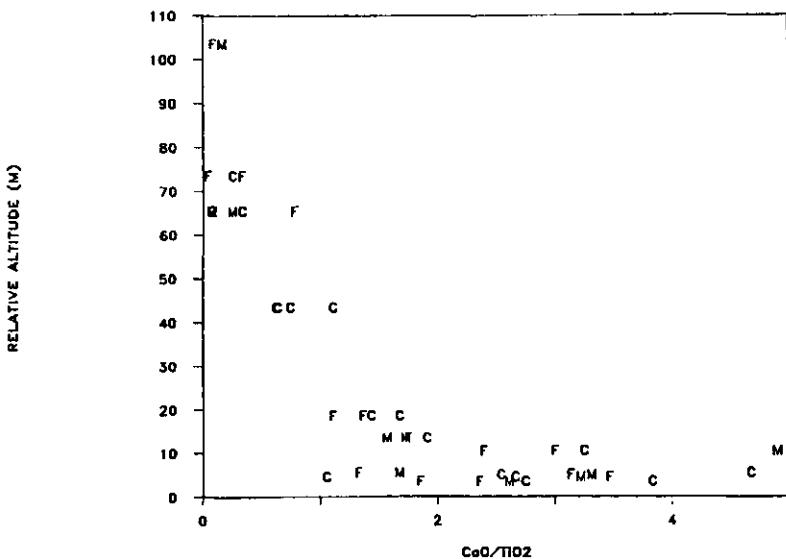


Figure 3.1.9. Bivariate plot of decreasing CaO/TiO₂ with relative altitude of Dore sands. Data labels indicate median of grain size distribution, C = coarse, 900–2000 µm; M = medium, 600–900 µm; F = fine, 210–600 µm.

have more weathering resistant basaltic mineral sources, like heavy opaque minerals. The regression models have an average coefficient of determination of 0.65, indicating that about 65% of the total geochemical variability in actual "basaltic" elements content can be ascribed to the combined effect of parent material and clay neoformation.

Empirical weathering indices for Allier sediments (Ca/Ti; Figure. 3.1.8; Kroonenberg et al., 1988) and for Dore sediments (Figure. 3.1.9) show similar trends. Apparently the great fluctuations in the amount of basaltic rock fragments supplied to the Allier strongly influenced the gradual loss of mobile elements by weathering. On the contrary, the geochemical composition of the Dore sediments remained essentially constant with time.

Conclusions

What knowledge was obtained from our approach to analysis sands bulk geochemically? The main advantage as we see it is the easy quantification of bulk sediment composition allowing statistical processing of the data, facilitating the identification and quantification of sediment composition determining factors.

The local grain size and weathering factors were easily determined and quantified. The grain size factor has apparently only a limited impact on the bulk sand composition in the studied areas, only a few specific elements and probably some minerals too are strongly grain size determined.

Post depositional weathering which strongly controls the present Dore terrace sediment composition, is also prominent in the Allier sands where it is strongly related with sediment composition. The external factors which are of more interest for Quaternary research seem to play only a major role in the Allier basin. A significant factor was found which was interpreted to display climatic or volcanic induced changes in sediment composition.

The added value of the bulk geochemical approach is

illustrated by the fact that in both fluvial systems more than 50% of the variability in bulk geochemistry is due to components which are often neglected in routine sedimentary petrography, i.e. rock fragments and light minerals. This also indicates that bulk sediment geochemistry can result in new and additional data of interest in Quaternary research. However, the interpretation of geochemical factors can only be done if the sand mineralogy is known. Therefore, sediment bulk geochemistry is complementary to sedimentary petrology, but cannot replace it.

3.2 PARENT MATERIAL CONTROLLED SUBSOIL WEATHERING IN A CHRONOSEQUENCE, THE ALLIER TERRACES.

A. Veldkamp & T.C. Feijtel

Abstract

The chronosequence in the Allier terraces is subject to erratic changes in parent material composition with time. Approximately 65% of the total variance in the basaltic elements content in the Allier terrace sands can be explained by the combined effect of parent material and time related neoformation of clay in the subsoil. It is shown that parent material composition, as a function of transport distance, strongly influences weathering rate in the Allier terrace chronosequence. In order to evaluate parent material controlled weathering effects a process model simulation was made based on an exponential decrease of MgO and neoformation of clay. Long term simulations with this model suggest that parent material controlled subsoil weathering is significant for sediments with easy weatherable fragments. After prolonged weathering the role of parent material decreases and becomes untraceable in strongly weathered materials.

3.2.1 Introduction

River terraces are often used as chronosequences to study rates of weathering and soil formation. Such chronosequences are selected in order to keep soil-forming factors other than time constant (Stevens & Walker, 1970). However, the assumption of constancy of parent material for terrace sediments is often not very realistic (Kroonenberg et al., 1990). In many terrace sequences of major rivers, like the Rhine and Meuse, the composition of the supplied sediments changed with age as a result of uplift and incision in time (van Straaten, 1946; Brunnacker & Boenigk, 1983). Within such chronosequences the terrace sediment maturity commonly increases with age as a result of both postdepositional weathering and changes in parent material. When such chronosequences are studied it is always difficult to separate the role of time and parent material in chronosequence weathering. As it can be expected that parent material strongly determines weathering within a chronosequence we have focussed our study on the role of parent material in chronosequence weathering.

We studied the Allier terrace sequence (Massif Central, France),

a chronosequence with irregular changes in sediment composition

in time (Kroonenberg et al., 1988). Such a chronosequence is expected to separate the effects of parent material and time related subsoil weathering.

The goal of this chapter is to determine and quantify the effect of the original sediment composition on the actual terrace sand composition in the Allier chronosequence. Further it is tried to determine the control of parent material on subsoil weathering in a chronosequence by means of process modelling with a theoretical model.

3.2.2 Materials and methods

Allier terraces (fig. 3.2.1) are numbered according to French usage from Z (youngest) to S (oldest). Along a stretch of 40 km along the Allier river sand samples were taken from the present bed (Z) and from sand and gravel pits in 4 different terrace levels (fig. 3.2.1) at Y= 5 ky, X= 15 and 30 ky, W= 300 ky and V= 900 ky (Pastre, 1986; Raynal, 1984).

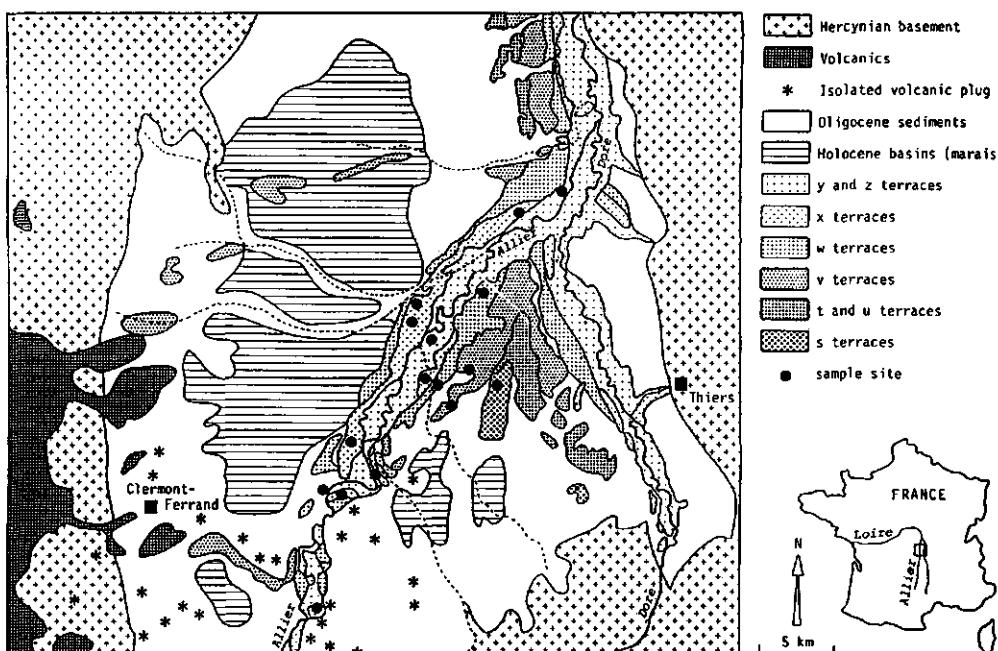


Figure 3.2.1 Map of the survey area, showing the Allier and its terraces.

At each sampling site 2-6 samples of different grain size distribution were collected, amounting to a total of 49 samples.

Care was taken to sample as much as possible sand from foreset laminae in small-scale cross-bedded sets, in order to avoid concentrations of heavy minerals in horizontally laminated lag deposits. Samples were taken as deep as possible (subsoil) to avoid effects of soil formation. In the laboratory, detailed granulometric analyses were done (15 fractions). To compare chemical composition with optically determinable mineralogy and to avoid the effect of secondary products, organic matter, calcium carbonate, free iron and all material <16 µm were removed from a representative sub-sample, separated by means of a sample splitter. Organic matter was destroyed with H₂O₂ and 'free' iron was extracted with Na-ditionite-EDTA at pH 4.5. Although the clay and fine silt content was measured, the decantated fraction < 16 µm was not analyzed geochemically.

After this pretreatment, 0.6 g of the sample was separated with a micro-sample splitter, fused with 2.4 g lithium tetraborate and analyzed. The major elements Si, Ti, Al, Fe, Mg, Ca, Na, K and P were analyzed with X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy on a Philips XRF assembly. The system is calibrated using USGS geochemical standards as listed by Abbey (1980, p. 16).

In order to determine whether parent material has a significant contribution to the actual terrace sediment composition of the Allier chronosequence a multiple regression analysis is carried out (Dillon & Goldstein, 1984) with the SPSSpc package (Norisus, 1986).

The following step in our approach is to evaluate the possible effects of parent material controlled weathering by means of a theoretical process response model. Modelling was done in accordance with chemical kinetics. A simplified parent material controlled weathering model was made where basalt containing sediment is weathering under certain strict assumptions. As basis for this model a spread sheet model of Feijtel & Meijer (1990) was used who used a similar modelling approach as Levine &

Ciolkosz (1986).

3.2.3 Results and discussion

Regression modelling on bulk geochemical data

Geochemical variability of the Allier sands is largest in Ti, Fe, Mn, Mg, Ca and P, as a result of varying amounts of basaltic rock-fragments. Also weathering effects, on which this study focuses, are most conspicuous in the basaltic elements (Kroonenberg et al., 1988; Jongmans et al., 1991; Veldkamp & Kroonenberg, 1989). The mean, maximum and minimum concentrations of these elements (Ox wt%) of the fraction between 16 μm and 2000 μm are listed in Table 3.2.1.

Var.	Mean	Minimum value	Maximum value	Standard Deviation
TiO ₂	0.81	0.24	1.78	0.42
Fe ₂ O ₃	3.36	1.16	7.87	1.82
MnO	0.04	0.01	0.10	0.03
MgO	1.63	0.36	4.60	1.19
CaO	2.10	0.49	5.38	1.34
P ₂ O ₅	0.19	0.07	0.44	0.10
Clay	4.6	0.1	15.5	3.3

Table 3.2.1 Means, minimum, maximum and standard deviations of bulk basaltic elements and clay contents of 49 Allier sand samples. Element values are in oxide weight percentages, fraction < 16 μm in weight percentage.

Previous research showed that the basaltic element variability in the Allier sands is independent of changes in sampling depth and grain size (Kroonenberg et al., 1988; Veldkamp, 1990). The lack of correlation between basalt content and median is explained by the fact that reworking, concentration and depletion of basaltic grains take place simultaneously in sands of all different granulometric characteristics. The insignificant role of sampling depth for each terrace level indicates that all samples were taken deep enough to avoid direct soil formation effects.

The fact that the local site factors, grain size and sampling depth, have no significant contribution to the variability in basaltic elements, makes these elements suitable to study regional weathering effects in the Allier chronosequence.

Weathering of basaltic sand particles in Allier sediments results in an overall loss of Ti, Fe, Mn, Mg, Ca and P in the sand fraction, and an increase of the amount of clay in the terrace (Pastre, 1986; Feijtel et al., 1988; Jongmans et al., 1990). Changes in basaltic fragments content are well illustrated by Ca and Mg content, because they originate from the easier weatherable minerals in these fragments. We use Mg as representative element for basaltic particles in our study. Weathering of basaltic sand particles is therefore described in this paper as a decrease in Mg content and an increase in clay content in the bulk sample, though strictly speaking clay formation is not necessarily the result of the weathering of Mg-bearing minerals.

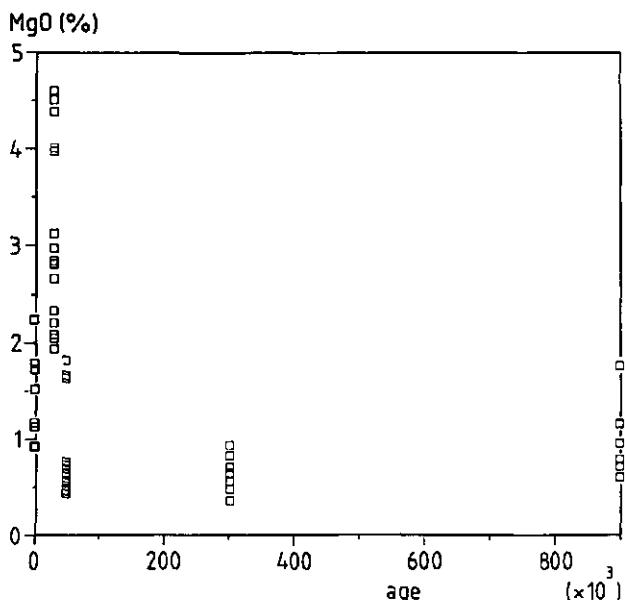


Figure 3.2.2 Measured Mg (Ox wt%) in the Allier terrace sands with age (age according to Pastre, 1986) in kyears.

Our data show that both Mg and clay content of the Allier terrace sands show a rather erratic behaviour within and from one terrace level to another (fig. 3.2.2). This implies that neither Mg nor clay content are simply related to terrace age, as might be expected in a chronosequence. Despite their unpredictable behaviour, Mg and clay content have roughly seen an inverse semi-logarithmic relation (fig. 3.2.3), suggesting a relationship between parent material and weathering.

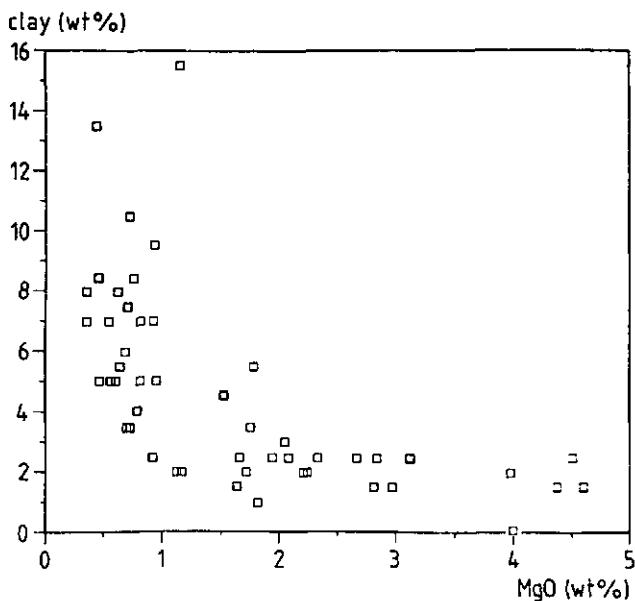


Figure 3.2.3 Measured Mg (Ox wt%) and Clay (wt%) relationship for the subsoil fluvial sands of the Allier.

In order to determine the parent material effect in the Allier chronosequence a multiple regression analysis is carried out, predicting the actual Mg content with the independent contributions of (1) a clay formation factor, (2) a parent material factor and (3) their interaction factor.

(1) The clay content seems related to the actual Mg content by a semi-logarithmic relationship (fig. 3.2.3) and is transformed by a natural logarithm $\ln(\text{CLAY (wt\%)})$.

(2) As independent parent material factor the downstream compositional sorting variability of alkali basaltic rock fragments is included (cf. Davies et al., 1978). Within the studied Allier section the downstream decrease of basaltic grains is almost linear (Kroonenberg et al., 1988). This trend is caused by downstream density sorting and by selective wear of the softer basaltic particles in comparison to harder quartz and feldspar grains. This is the only known variability in original parent material composition which is still traceable. Of course other factors like provenance and volcanism have determined variability in parent material but these factors cannot be reconstructed quantitatively any more. The sorting effect is expressed as UPSTREAM, the distance in kilometres upstream from a chosen point in the Allier.

(3) The interaction term is the product of the independent contributions of clay formation and parent material, $\ln(\text{CLAY}) \cdot \text{UPSTREAM}$. This term gives an indication of the interaction between the two terms and is used as an independent variable. A high contribution of this term to the regression model will indicate a strong relationship between parent material and weathering.

In this way the following multiple regression model can be established predicting actual Mg (in MgO wt%) content.

$$\text{Mg} = \text{Const} + B_1 \text{UPSTREAM} + B_2 \ln(\text{CLAY}) + B_{1,2} (\text{UPSTREAM} \cdot \ln(\text{CLAY})). \quad (1)$$

The regression model was significant at the 0.05 level. Model fit expressed by the coefficient of determination (R^2) was 0.71. Predicted Mg contents plotted with age (fig. 3.2.4) show a good correspondence with measured Mg content with age (fig. 3.2.2). Further analysis of the residuals of the regression model did not reveal any new relationship. A plot of the residuals with age (fig. 3.2.5) shows that there are some differences for the different terrace levels. The X terrace has mainly positive residuals while the Z terrace has mainly negative residuals. These differences suggest different individual terrace

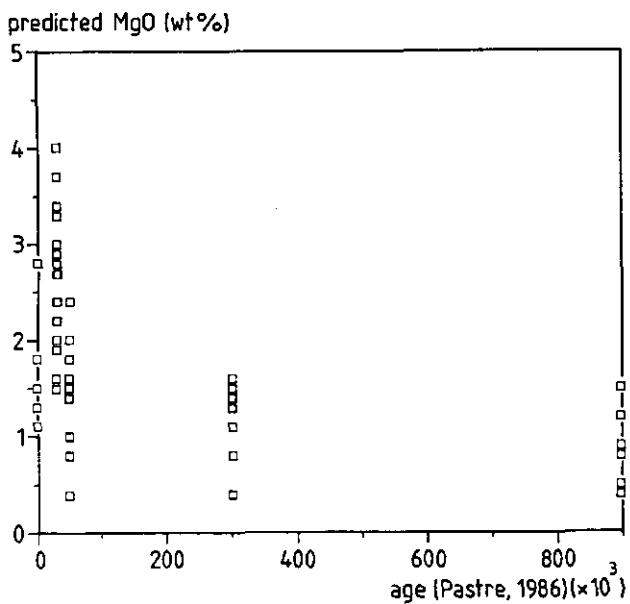


Figure 3.2.4 Predicted Mg (Ox wt%) with age (according to Pastre, 1986) in kyears.

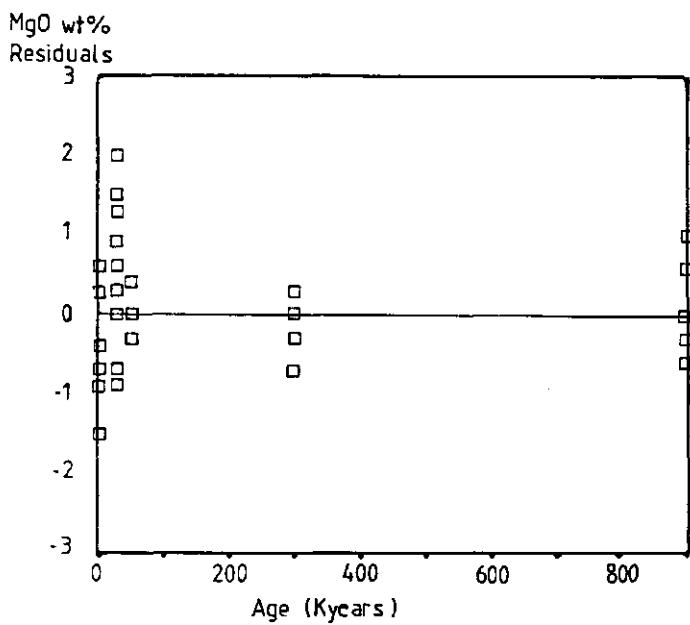


Figure 3.2.5 Residuals of regression model with age (according to Pastre, 1986) in kyears.

characteristics which are most probably caused by factors not considered in the regression model such as provenance and volcanism.

Similar regression models were made for Ti, Fe, Mn, Ca and P. All these regression models were also significant at the 0.05 level and have good model fits (Tab. 3.2.2).

Elements	R ²	Beta ₁	Beta ₂	Beta ₁₂
Ti	0.59	0.19	0.70	-0.64
Fe	0.60	0.23	0.74	-0.64
Mn	0.63	0.09	0.68	-0.55
Mg	0.71	0.26	0.78	-0.75
Ca	0.66	0.29	0.75	-0.80
P	0.60	0.30	0.74	-0.76

Table 3.2.2 Multiple linear regression models for basaltic elements, model fit (R^2) and standardized regression coefficients for the function:
 $wt\% \text{ basaltic element} = B_0 + B_1 \cdot \ln(wt\%CLAY) + B_2 \cdot \text{UPSTREAM(km)} + B_{1,2} \cdot \ln(wt\%CLAY) \cdot \text{UPSTREAM(km)}$

The regression models for Mg and Ca have the best fit (highest R^2) probably because they have easy weatherable mineral sources (olivine, augite and Ca-plagioclases). The regression models have an average coefficient of determination of 0.65, indicating that about 65% of the total geochemical variability in actual basaltic elements content can be ascribed to the combined effect of parent material and clay neoformation.

As it is inappropriate to interpret the regression coefficients (B) as indicators of relative importance of variables, the dimensionless standardized regression coefficients (Betas) are calculated (Tab. 3.2.2). They allow a comparison between the contribution of each independent variable. These standardized regression coefficients indicate a relative large contribution of the interaction term (high negative values) to the overall model. This result indicates, as already suggested by fig. 3.2.3, that weathering product and parent material are strongly interrelated. This means that parent material significantly determines weathering rate within the Allier chronosequence, a result which agrees with the common knowledge on weathering.

Theoretically Modelling of parent material controlled weathering

In most chronosequences weathering products increase in a non linear manner with time, and primary minerals decrease correspondingly (Goldich, 1938; Hay, 1960; Ruxton, 1968; Lowe, 1986). The resulting exponential or semi-logarithmic equations are thought to be in accordance with chemical kinetics (Yaalon, 1975).

We also tried to model in accordance with chemical kinetics. We made a parent material controlled weathering model where basalt containing sediment is weathering under certain strict assumptions. Each assumption is listed and its validity for the Allier chronosequence is pointed out. The weathering process model is based upon the following nine assumptions:

- (1) Weathering is decomposition of primary minerals, leaching losses and clay neoformation.
- (2) Weathering is confined to basaltic rock fragments.
This assumption is corroborated for the Allier sediment by Jongmans et al. (1990,1991), who reported the volcanic fragments as major source for coatings of secondary weathering products. Although differential weathering susceptibility of the various basaltic minerals is observed (Veldkamp et al., 1990), the process simulation model treats the basaltic fragments as a whole.
- (3) The model is only valid for subsoil sand deposits. i.e. interstratal or vadose zone weathering.
This assumption is included to obviate the need for considering vertical profile development in the upper few metres within individual terraces. This assumption is justified for the Allier sediments to some extent as no significant effect of sampling depth has been observed (Kroonenberg et al.,1988).
- (4) The model is valid for one million years only.
This is the approximate age of the oldest sampled Allier terrace (Pastre, 1986).
- (5) Constant weathering in time.

As it is too speculative to include climatic changes within the simulation model, the effects of weathering are considered to be constant and cumulative. Strictly speaking this assumption is not correct in the Allier basin. During the last million years the region has known many climatic changes which certainly affected water quality and temperature (permafrost) of the vadose zone (Bout, 1963; Veyret, 1978).

(6) No net clay illuviation or eluviation.

This assumption is supported by the fact that our samples originate from sediments (beyond 2-3 meters) where no distinct change in total clay content has been observed in the Allier terraces (Jongmans et al., 1991).

(7) Primary clay content is constant (2 wt %).

Many terraces are stratigraphically complex, with primary variations in clay content which are not taken into account within the model.

(8) Chemical composition of basalt and clay is constant.

This assumption if of course also incorrect for a real system. The average compositions are based on measurements in the Allier sequence given by Jongmans et al. (1991).

(9) Neoformation rate is not hampered by availability of other elements than Mg. Although most Mg is usually lost to the groundwater it is assumed that only Mg is limiting in respect to the neoformation rate.

Different simulations with changing initial compositions (basalt content) allow an evaluation of a real chronosequence like in the Allier basin. The model is tuned by adapting the rate parameters of both dissolution and neoformation processes (k_1 and k_2) to obtain comparable basalt and clay quantities as measured in the Allier terraces. Clay and MgO contents of the older terraces and the unweathered sands were used as standard reference values. This trial and error tuning was done because no comparable subsoil longterm weathering rates and rate parameters are known. Most weathering rates are based on detailed studies under well defined conditions. Studies which may give

comparable weathering rates as used in our model are catchment studies. These studies have the disadvantage that they register only actual weathering environments which are probably not the same as longterm weathering rates. The used dissolution rate of Mg (7×10^{-5} kg MgO/(ha yr)) is not directly comparable with any known dissolution rate. When this dissolution rate is recalculated into a geochemical denudation rate a value is obtained (2×10^{-3} kg MgO/(ha yr)) which is a factor 10^4 to 10^5 less than measured values in the catchment studies as published in Colman & Dethier (1986). This large difference is mainly caused by the assumption that all Mg is build in clay minerals. In reality most weathered MgO seems to dissolve in the ground water.

Parent material controlled weathering is incorporated in the model by making the rate parameter of neoformation (K_2) dependent on the amount of unweathered basalt ($M(b)$).

The simulation results of this theoretical and very simplified model have conceptual validity only because no realistic conditions are simulated. Only possible effects of parent material controlled weathering are simulated.

The basic quantitative assumption is that:

Mg (basalt) in sand fraction (a wt. %Mg) --> Clay (b wt. %MgO)

The equations used:

$$\text{Dissolution}_{(t)} = K_1 \cdot M(b) \quad (2)$$

$$K_1 = k_1 - a \exp(t) \quad (3)$$

Where: $M(b)$ = Mass available primary Mg (kg MgO/ha)

K_1 = Rate parameter in kg MgO/(ha yr)

k_1 = 7×10^{-5} kg MgO/(ha yr) for Mg

a = scale correction factor, 5×10^{-6} kg MgO/ha for Mg

$\exp(t)$ = time dependence of dissolution in (yr)⁻¹

$$\text{Neoformation}_{(t)} = K_2 \cdot M(d) \quad (4)$$

$$K_2 = k_2/M(b) \quad (5)$$

Where $M(d)$ = Mass available dissolved Mg (kg MgO/ha)
 K_2 = Rate parameter in kg MgO/(ha yr)
 k_2 = $2 \text{ (kg MgO)}^2/(\text{ha}^2 \text{ yr})$ for Mg. kg and ha are squared because K_2 (equation 5) has kg MgO/(ha yr) as units.
 $M(b)$ = Mass available primary Mg (kg MgO/ha)

In order to run the model a specific volume of sediment with a 'realistic' primary compositions were chosen.

Thickness of sediment layer (fixed) = 10 cm
Initial bulk density of sediment layer = 1.5 g/cm³
Initial basalt content in sediment = 42 wt% (S_0), 35 wt% (S_1),
30 wt% (S_2), 25 wt% (S_3)
Mg content in basalt = 8 wt% MgO
Mg content in clay = 1.9 wt% MgO

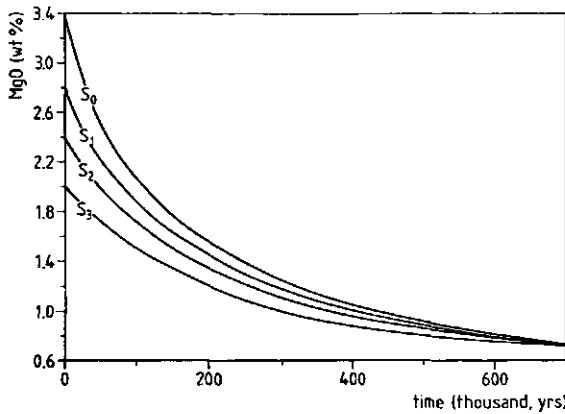


Figure 3.2.6 Decrease of bulk sediment Mg (Ox wt %) content with time, for four simulations with the process model.

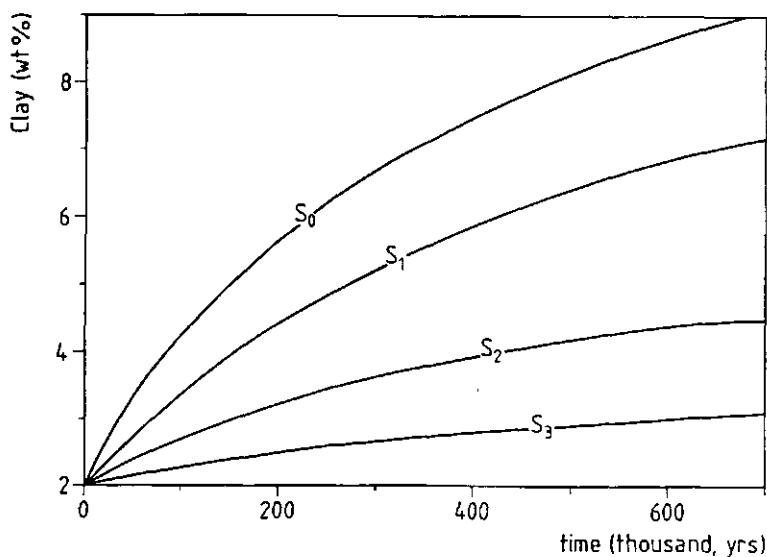


Figure 3.2.7 Increase of neoformed clay (wt%) in time, for four simulations with the process model.

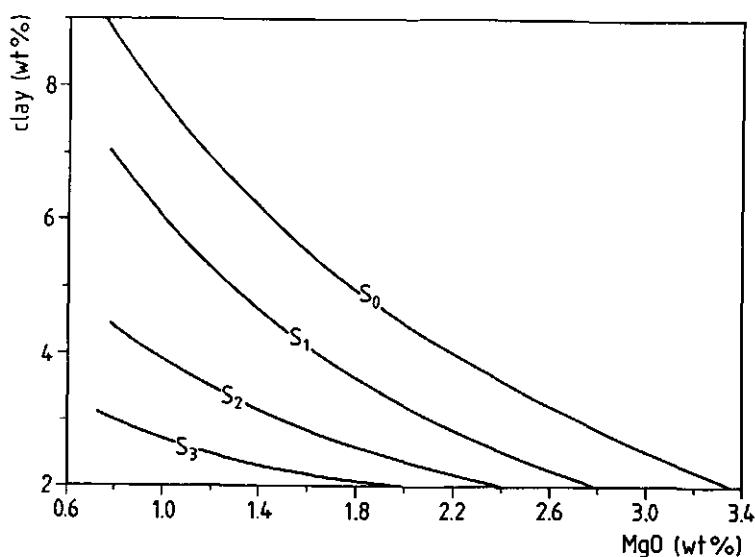


Figure 3.2.8 Total weathered basalt (Mg in Ox wt%) with total new formed clay (wt%), for four simulations with the process model.

The simulation results, which should be viewed qualitatively only, are presented in figs. 3.2.6 and 3.2.7. Figure 3.2.6 shows the decrease of bulk Mg concentration, as a measure of the decreasing basalt content in time. Four simulations (S_0 to S_3) are represented with each having a different initial MgO (basalt) content of the sediment. These different simulations show that sediments with a relative large content of basalt have faster weathering rates than sediments with lower basalt content under similar conditions. It is also illustrated that after prolonged weathering all terraces remain with comparable basalt contents. Figure 3.2.7 showing the increase in clay content during the four weathering simulations, illustrating the stronger increase in clay content of the sediments rich in easily weatherable components. The curves of Fig. 3.2.7 also show a large increase in clay content at the start of basalt rich sediment (S_0) weathering, indicating a high rate of clay formation at the start of that simulation. After prolonged weathering the rate of clay formation decreases and the difference in original sediment composition remains only traceable by the amount of neoformed clay, an unfortunately unmeasurable variable in a real chronosequence. The ultimate weathering stage will be a complete alteration of the basalt particles into clay. Such a stage is reported from the Caquetá basin in the Colombian Amazons, where strong tropical weathering erased all differences in provenance leaving only thick clay soils (Kroonenberg et al., 1990). Fig. 3.2.8, showing the Clay-Mg relations, displays qualitatively comparable relationship as the measured curve of fig. 3.2.3. Although the resulting Clay/Mg curves are not matching the measured effect, it illustrates that this type of relationship is most probably the result of parent material controlled weathering.

The simulation results suggest clearly that parent material composition has especially a strong weathering effect in sediments rich in basaltic particles. After prolonged weathering, more than a 0.5 million years in the model, the basaltic fragment content decreases and differences in initial parent material (S_0 to S_3) are almost erased leaving a chronosequence with very small

differences in MgO content between the different terrace levels.

3.2.4 Conclusions

The analysis of the Allier terrace chronosequence showed that parent material can strongly determine weathering within a chronosequence. The effects of parent material composition should therefore not be underestimated in the study of other chronosequences.

Long term simulations with a simplified theoretical process model of parent material controlled weathering indicate that parent material controlled weathering is only prominent in 'young' sediments with many easy weatherable fragments. Sediments with many weatherable components will show faster weathering rates than sediments with less weatherable components. After several 100 thousands of years of simulated weathering the differences in weathering rate due to the parent material decrease and becomes finally untraceable in very old deeply weathered chronosequences. The differences in initial parent material composition remain theoretically traceable by the total amount of neoformed clay during weathering, but, unfortunately this is an impossible measurable variable in real chronosequences.

3.3 SPATIAL VARIABILITY IN FLUVIAL SAND COMPOSITION AT THE ALLIER/DORE CONFLUENCE.

A. Veldkamp & I.G. Staritsky

Abstract

Spatial sand compositional variability in Allier (Limagne, France) terrace sediments is investigated and compared with spatial trends in the present river bed caused by sediment transport processes. In the actual Allier riverbed complete sediment mixing at the confluence with its tributary the Dore is delayed for approximately one kilometre, while the Younger Dryas terrace sands at this confluence display a delay of several kilometres. Geostatistics allow a discrimination of mixed and unmixed sediments within the same floodplain thus allowing better representative sampling for palaeohydrological research. The delay of complete sediment mixing at a confluence as displayed in sediment composition may be related to the amount of river channels and their sinuosity and floodplain width during deposition.

3.3.1 Introduction

River junctions are points of significant changes within a fluvial system. The site at which two rivers meet is marked by highly complex three-dimensional patterns of flow and sediment transport and deposition. The riverbed morphology reflects the complex flow dynamics and distinctive patterns of sediment transport within the confluence, which are largely controlled by junction angle and the ratio of the discharges between the confluent channels (Mosley, 1976; Best, 1986; Bathurst, 1988). Experimental results of Best (1986, 1988) and Roy & Bergeron (1990) showed that sediments from the tributary channel are preferentially concentrated along a distinct pathway and deposited in separate bars, displaying delayed sediment mixing.

Within palaeohydrology it is generally known that terrace sediments near former confluences have a complex spatial composition, displaying both local and regional variability. The local variability is mainly caused by sediment mixing processes of the main and tributary sediment flows, and the regional variability predominantly caused by past environmental changes. Because the palaeohydrologist is commonly interested in fluvial dynamics related to paleoenvironmental changes, samples near confluence terraces are commonly avoided (Green & McGregor, 1986). It is difficult to discern mixing effects from more

regional effects because there is only limited knowledge on the quantitative effects of sediment mixing. This limitation is due in part to the discrepancy between the short term experiments in well controlled shoots or brooklets and the long term macro scale studies in palaeohydrology.

In order to better understand the large scale sediment mixing at a confluence, the spatial effects of such mixing are investigated. The goal of this chapter is to discern in the Allier riverbed and its associated terrace the spatial compositional variability component caused by the mixing of two distinct sediment flows.

This study will focus first on the spatial mixing characteristics in the present riverbed. Subsequently the spatial compositional trends of terrace sands are investigated and compared with the riverbed sands of the same river allowing a more reliable interpretation of the sediment mixing effects.

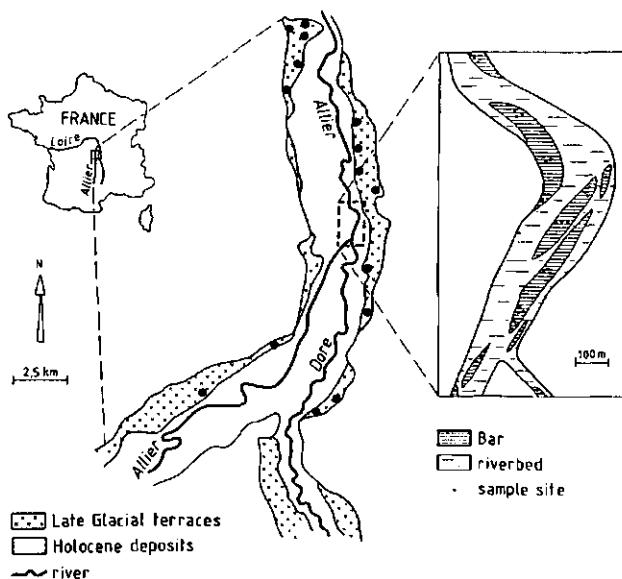


Figure 3.3.1 Study area with sample sites in Allier riverbed and Younger Dryas terrace.

3.3.2 Study area

The study area (Fig. 3.3.1) includes the actual riverbed of Allier river and its Younger Dryas terrace (Xb) (10 m above present riverbed), at the confluence with a major tributary, the Dore. Previous bulk geochemical studies (e.g. Kroonenberg et al., 1988) in chapter 3.1 showed that basaltic rock fragments cause significantly higher levels of TiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , MgO , CaO and P_2O_5 in the Allier sediments, whereas the Dore sands are characterized by significantly higher SiO_2 and K_2O levels, originating from quartz, K-feldspars and mica's. Changes in bulk geochemical sand composition are well illustrated by CaO content, concentrated in the basaltic rock fragments, and K_2O content, concentrated in crystalline rock fragments. Ca and K contents are virtually independent on grain size because their host minerals are found in almost all grain size fractions (Veldkamp, 1990).

A major difference between the present riverbed and the Younger Dryas terrace sediment composition is the higher amount of CaO (basaltic fragments) in the terrace sands. This difference has a climatic origin as the Younger Dryas sediments have a fluvioglacial origin from melting glaciers in volcanic areas (Bout, 1963; Kroonenberg et al., 1988). The actual riverbed sediments are relatively poor in volcanics as they have no extra volcanic addition from melting glaciers.

3.3.3 Materials and methods

Sampling procedures and measurements

Sand samples were taken from bars in one kilometre riverbed at the actual Allier/Dore confluence (Fig. 3.3.1) yielding a total of 45 sample sites.

As the investigated river bars are predominantly gravelly, almost each sand bar in the investigated river section was sampled. The Younger Dryas Allier terrace near the Allier/Dore confluence was sampled along a stretch of 15 km in sand and gravel pits amounting to a total of 67 samples at 16 sites (Fig. 3.3.1).

At every sample site 1-4 samples of different grain size

distributions were collected, to incorporate a possible grain size effect due to local sorting processes during sedimentation (Veldkamp, 1990). Sand bulk element concentrations of SiO₂, TiO₂, Al₂O₃, Fe₂O₃, MnO, MgO, CaO, Na₂O, K₂O and P₂O₅, were measured with X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy. Detailed sampling methodology, laboratory treatments and measurements were done according to Kroonenberg et al. (1988).

Spatial variability procedures

Changes in sand composition at the Allier/Dore confluence are described by longitudinal profiles showing the average sand compositions of the sample sites on the right and left side of the river. Spatial variability is quantified with both geological clustering and geostatistics. In geological clustering it is assumed that a relationship exists between spatial sediment composition and geomorphological units, such as gravel bars in the present riverbed and terrace units as mapped (Fig 3.3.1) for the Younger Dryas terrace level. Within the geostatistical approach the spatial dependence is characterised by means of semi-variograms.

In geological clustering the mean sand composition is determined for each individual sampled geomorphological unit. The unit compositions are classified into three composition classes. The significance of differences in composition class is determined by means of multiple comparisons according to the Tukey method assuming independence between the distinguished units (Dillon & Goldstein, 1984).

Geostatistics starts with calculation of semi-variograms, after which the nuggets and slope angles for the spatial dependencies are estimated (Journel & Huijbregts, 1978; Stein et al., 1989). To investigate whether variables change more rapidly in one direction than in another direction, directional semi-variograms were used. Kriging was used (Burgess et al., 1981) to predict values at a regular grid which is used in turn for the computerized construction of maps.

3.3.4 Results and discussion

Present riverbed

Descriptive statistics of the present riverbed sands are given in Table 3.3.1. Longitudinal profiles of mean CaO and K₂O contents (Fig. 3.3.2) in the present riverbed show the downstream changes in sand composition of the river bars on the right and left side and in the centre of the river. After about one kilometre downstream there is no clear difference between the three distinguished bar types. These trends suggest delayed sediment mixing of the right and left bank side riverbars, while the bars in the river centre display a mixed sand composition.

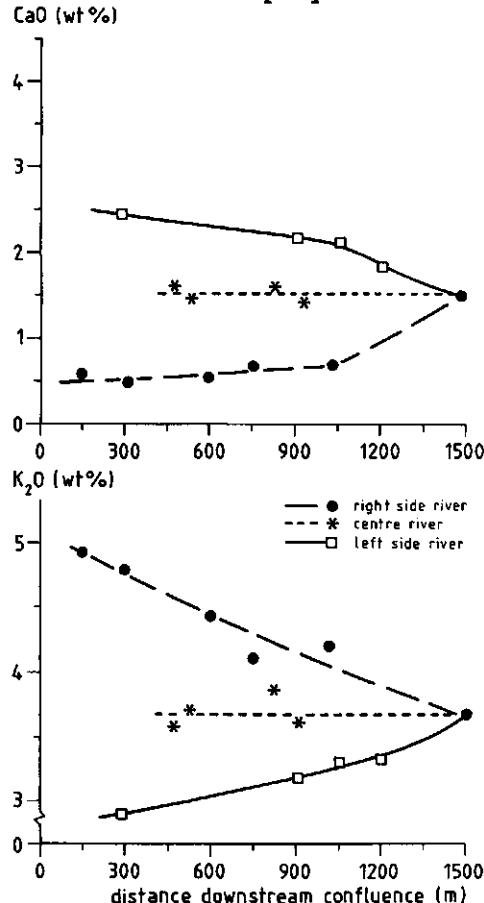


Figure 3.3.2

Longitudinal trends of mean CaO and K₂O contents of the riverbars in the middle (M) and on the left (L) and right (R) river bank side of the Allier.

Element (wt%)	All bars		Allier bars		Dore bars		Mixed bars	
	mean	std	mean	std	mean	std	mean	std
SiO ₂	77.40	3.68	73.54	3.72	78.75	3.28	76.58	2.60
TiO ₂	.51	.31	.98	.40	.40	.23	.52	.12
Al ₂ O ₃	10.86	1.21	11.11	1.23	10.66	1.10	11.17	1.34
Fe ₂ O ₃	2.27	1.49	4.43	1.99	1.68	1.06	2.38	.59
MnO	.03	.02	.06	.03	.02	.02	.03	.01
MgO	.98	.49	1.69	.31	.74	.43	1.10	.19
CaO	1.26	.54	2.06	.28	.94	.43	1.50	.17
Na ₂ O	1.44	.20	1.49	.13	1.39	.20	1.54	.20
K ₂ O	3.68	.56	3.03	.28	3.99	.50	3.23	.16
P ₂ O ₅	.14	.05	.21	.05	.11	.05	.16	.02

Table 3.3.1 Descriptive statistics present riverbed.

Geological clustering

The mean CaO and K₂O river bar concentrations were classified into three classes (Fig. 3.3.3). The unmixed Allier sands are rich in CaO (>2 wt%) and poor in K₂O (<3 wt%), while sands with a Dore signature have opposite bulk geochemical characteristics, poor in CaO (<1 wt%) and rich in K₂O (>4 wt%).

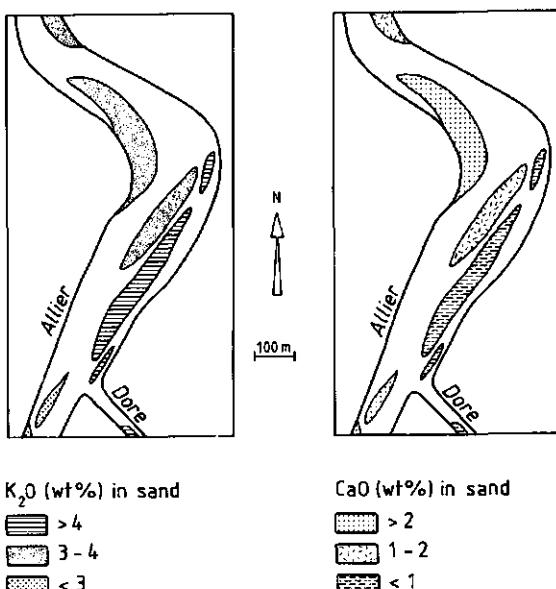


Figure 3.3.3 Geological clustering maps of sand composition in river bars at Allier/Dore confluence.

Dore sands are found in the Dore and along the eastern (right) river bank of the Allier, while along the opposite western bank sands with typical unmixed Allier characteristics are found. A river bar in the middle of the Allier has sand with a mixed origin (CaO 1-2 wt%; K_2O 3-4 wt%) illustrating the existence of sediment mixing at and downstream the Allier/Dore confluence.

Spatial variability

Since semi-variograms were expected to differ in two directions, parallel to the river and perpendicular to it, two directional variograms were compiled for the variables studied (Staritsky, 1989). No significant anisotropic spatial variability was found, however. The two directional semi-variograms of the CaO and K_2O content are equal, indicating that there is no relationship with the flow direction of the river (broken lines in Fig. 3.3.4 and 3.3.5). This rather surprising effect is probably due to the sharp bend of the river causing each directional semi-variogram to have a component parallel and perpendicular to the flow direction.

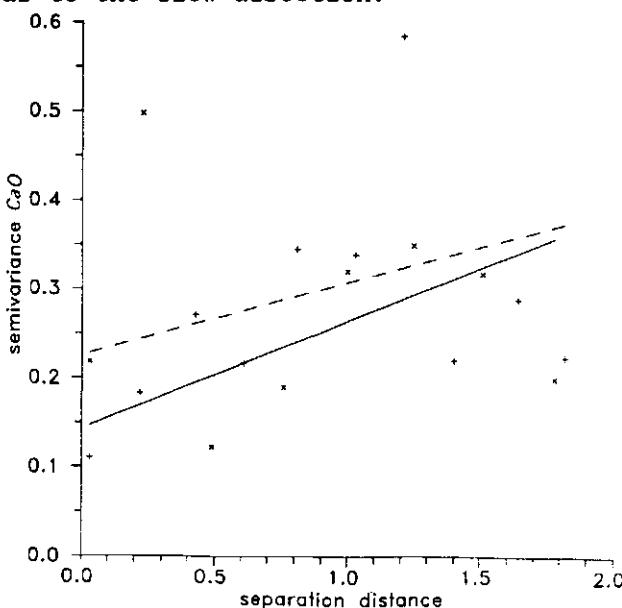


Figure 3.3.4 CaO Semi-variograms of the spatial dependence of the sand composition in the present riverbed (----), and semi-variogram of flow direction with adapted grid cells (—), illustrating dependence of variability with flow direction.

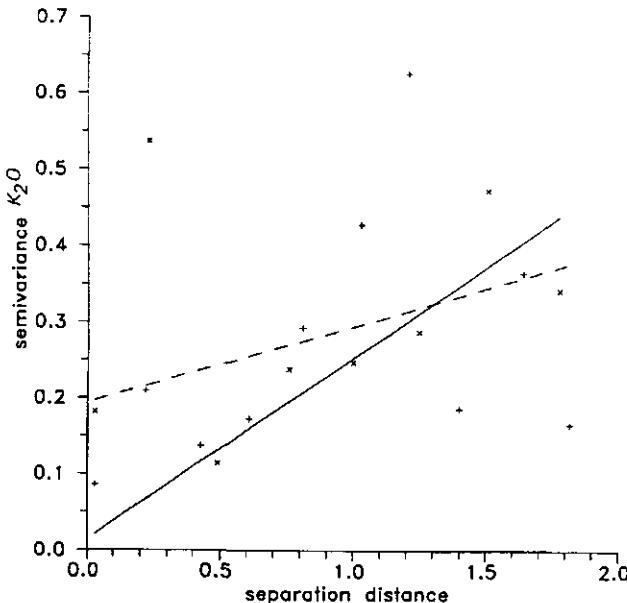


Figure 3.3.5 K_2O Semi-variograms of the spatial dependence of the sand composition in the present riverbed (-----), and semi-variogram of flow direction with adapted grid cells (—), illustrating dependence of variability with flow direction.

To investigate this statement a semi-variogram along the flow direction was made using a transformed grid with grid lines parallel to the Allier (continuous lines in Fig. 3.3.4 and 3.3.5). These semi-variograms have high variability at short distances which is caused by the projection of both river sides on a grid parallel to the flow direction. The new semi-variograms have a much stronger spatial dependence for the larger distances than the semi-variograms of the actual grid cells, indicating that there exists, as expected, a directional dependence of the spatial sand compositional variability in a river.

With the semi-variograms (-----) of Fig. 3.3.4 and 3.3.5, maps of the predicted CaO and K_2O content are made with an isotropic kriging procedure. These maps show the spatial variability of CaO and K_2O content within the gravel bars in the riverbed (Fig. 3.3.6). The standard deviation of the prediction errors are all around 0.5 wt%. Downstream from the confluence the bars situated in the middle of the Allier display a mixed composition, while typical Dore and Allier sand bars remain along the edges of the riverbed.

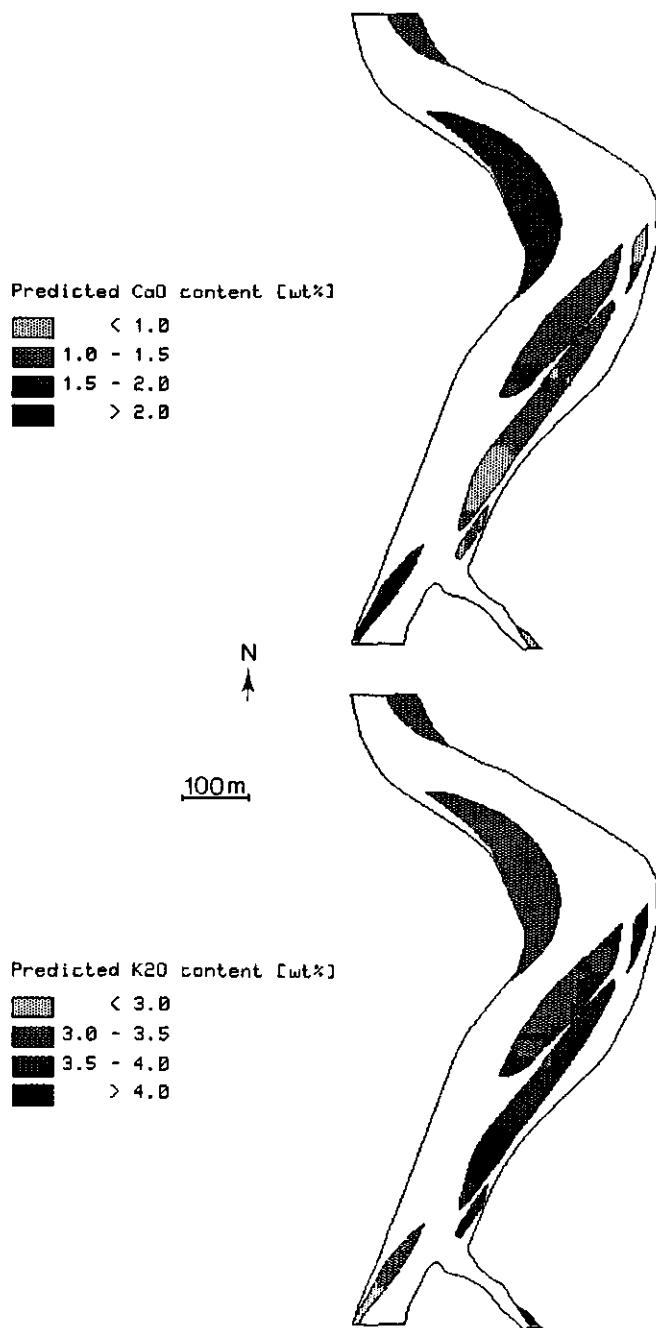


Figure 3.3.6 Maps of the general sand compositional trends in present riverbed.

This is in agreement with the maps of Fig. 3.3.3. The more downstream situated bars have a more homogeneous composition illustrating a more thoroughly mixed character. The kriged maps show more details of the changes in sand composition within the sand bars. They also do show the delayed sediment mixing in more detail compared to Fig. 3.3.3.

origin of spatial variability

Spatial sand compositional variability in the present riverbed is clearly caused by the sediment mixing at the Allier/Dore confluence (Church & Kellerhals, 1978; Best, 1986; Bathurst, 1988). The observed compositional trends clearly show delayed sediment mixing as observed by other confluences (Komura, 1973; Best, 1986).

Sands with a mixed composition are found in the bars in the centre of the Allier and at the first major river bend (Fig. 3.3.3 & 3.3.6), thus indicating that sediment mixing starts immediately but a complete mixing is delayed for at least one kilometre in the present Allier riverbed. This delay of sediment mixing is most prominent for the bar sediments along the riverbed edge. This implies that terrace sediments are more likely to display a maximum delay of complete sediment mixing during their deposition.

Younger Dryas terrace

Downstream changes in mean terrace sand composition on the right and left river bank (Fig. 3.3.7) show differences for the two populations. Only many kilometres downstream the presumed former confluence, differences between the right and left bank terrace units diminish, suggesting a delayed sediment mixing of at least ten kilometres. Spatial variability within the Younger Dryas terrace is determined only by means of geological clustering due to the limited amount of sample sites ($n=16$). The units used are the different terrace units from the geological map. The sampled terrace units (Fig. 3.3.1) are classified according to their mean sand geochemical composition.

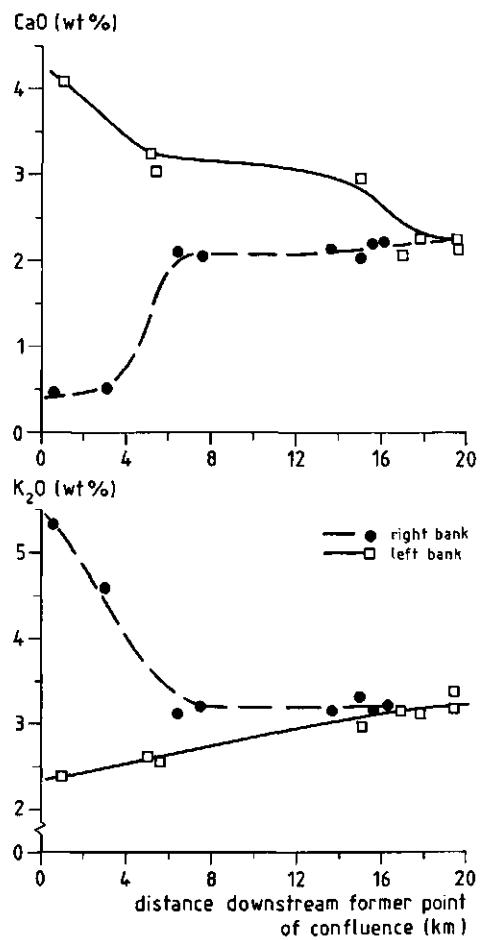


Figure 3.3.7 Longitudinal trends of mean CaO and K₂O contents of terrace units on the left (L) and right (R) hand side of the Allier.

The mean CaO and K₂O content of the units is divided into three classes shown on maps of spatial CaO and K₂O trends (Fig. 3.3.8). The Allier sediments are rich in CaO (>3 wt%) and poor in K₂O (<3 wt%) while Dore sands display opposite characteristics. Sands with Dore characteristics (CaO <2 wt%; K₂O >4 wt%) are found along the eastern valley slope a few kilometres downstream the presumed former Allier/Dore confluence. The occurrence of volcanic fragments in these sediments indicates that some mixing with Allier sediments took place before deposition.

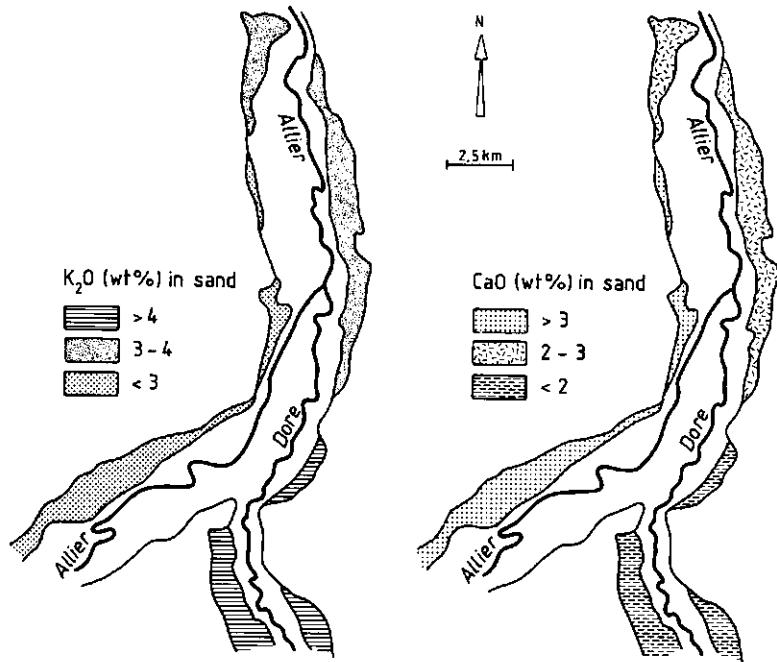


Figure 3.3.8 Geological clustering maps of sand composition in younger Dryas terrace sediments at Allier/Dore confluence.

Sediments with strong Allier characteristics are found along the opposite western valley slope to about 10 km downstream of the presumed former Allier Dore junction.

Comparison of spatial compositional trends of present riverbed and terrace sands.

Although the sediment compositional pattern (Fig. 3.3.8) found in the Younger Dryas terrace sands is only tentative, the resemblance with the present riverbed (Fig. 3.3.3 and 3.3.6) is

strong. In both Younger Dryas and present Allier sediments an elongated body of Dore like sediment is found along the eastern Allier valley slope, downstream the confluence. It seems likely that this has a similar origin, delayed sediment mixing at a confluence.

The most striking difference between the Younger Dryas and present sediments is the scale difference in spatial variability. This difference may originate from the differences in fluvial system characteristics during deposition. Younger Dryas sediments were deposited by an Allier with a more braided character than the present more meandering river (Bout, 1963). These differences in fluvial system behaviour include differences in river sinuosity floodplain width and amount of channels. Sediment mixing in the actual Allier is maximally delayed to the first river bend. A river with a higher sinuosity can be expected to display a shorter delay in complete sediment mixing. This trend becomes more complicated when different channels occur in the floodplain. Sediment mixing at a confluence with different channels will show a longer delay than in one channel. From aerial photographs it can be seen that the Dryas Allier has known more channels. During the Younger Dryas the Dore mixed with the Allier channels one by one contributing to sediment mixing delay of several kilometres. The actual Dore flowing several kilometres parallel to the Allier is still occupying a former Allier channel.

3.3.5 Conclusions

The strong resemblance of the spatial compositional distribution within the present riverbed and the Younger Dryas terrace indicates that sediment mixing at the Allier Dore confluence strongly determined the spatial sand compositional variability in the Younger Dryas terrace. This result supports the general idea of the impact of former confluences on terrace sediment composition. The scale difference in spatial variability between the Younger Dryas and present Allier sediments suggests that changes in fluvial dynamics caused major changes in the

spatial variability of fluvial sediment composition at this confluence.

The large regional differences between fluvial sediment variability of Younger Dryas and present sediments indicate that sediment mixing in large scale systems is much more complicated than in small scale experiments. Therefore more macro scale research at confluences is needed to allow a more reliable palaeohydrological interpretations.

Quantitative determination of the spatial compositional variability in terrace sediments allows discrimination of the mixed and unmixed sediments within the same terrace level thus facilitating the selection of suitable sample sites for further regional palaeohydrological research. Geological clustering allows a first and quick discrimination of the sediment types but a more accurate discrimination can be obtained from a geostatistical approach which needs more sample sites.

3.4 CLIMATE CONTROLLED SEDIMENT FLUXES IN A FLUVIAL SYSTEM: A RECONSTRUCTION OF THE ALLIER BASIN DURING THE LATE QUATERNARY.

A. Veldkamp

Abstract

Longitudinal trends in bulk composition of Holocene and Late Weichselian terrace sands of the Allier (Central France) show that sand composition is mainly determined by longitudinal sorting and tributary sediment fluxes. These fluxes are mainly related to basin lithology and environment. The past changes in bulk geochemical composition of Allier sands as found in terrace sediments at a confluence are used to reconstruct the past sediment flux dynamics. The good match between the reconstructed Allier sediment flux dynamics and known environmental changes in its basin during the last 30.000 years indicates that the methodology of calculating sediment mixing ratios is a promising quantitative tool for paleoenvironmental reconstructions.

3.4.1 Introduction

Sediment composition within a fluvial system is the result of both internal factors such as transport mechanism and relative grain resistance during transport, as external factors such as source area and tributary dilution (Cameron and Blatt, 1971; Basu, 1976; Davies et al., 1978). These external factors can be related to present and past relief, source rock and climate by studying the longitudinal variation in fluvial sand composition (Franzinelli and Potter, 1982; Knighton, 1982; Ichim and Radoane, 1990).

In palaeohydrological research it is often attempted to reconstruct past environments. Fluvial sediments are studied in order to establish the external factors determining sediment characteristics. Such studies do usually not rely on the longitudinal variation but on the interpretation of the stratigraphy of fluvial deposits (Starkel, 1983; Mitchell and Gerrard, 1987). There are many ways to relate sediment properties to hydrological regime and environmental conditions during deposition. A successful approach is estimating palaeodischarge peaks from maximum grain size (Maizels, 1986), thus allowing the registration of large scale changes within a fluvial system. In general the tendency in fluvial terrace research is to rely on sediment characteristics such as grain size and composition mostly combined with more or less fragmentary palynological and

paleontological data.

Climatic change, uplift and other major events in a drainage basin do not only bring along changes in the granulometrical and mineralogical composition, but also in the quantity of sediment delivered to a stream. These effects may greatly differ from one tributary to another within the same drainage basin. One tributary may carry sediment from deglaciating mountain ranges, another may show admixture of contemporaneous volcanism. Such events can be detected qualitatively e.g. by heavy mineral analyses, but the effect on the bulk composition of the fluvial sediments is rarely studied. Yet the study of bulk sediment composition is a way to quantify fluxes of sediment of different composition in a drainage basin.

When changes in bulk sediment composition at a confluence are measured it is possible to reconstruct the former sediment mixing process at this confluence by calculating the ratio of the two sediment fluxes which mixed at this confluence during deposition (mixing ratio). Environmental changes in a basin which cause changes in sediment supply can potentially be registered by the mixing ratios of tributaries and the main river at their confluences. It are these sediment mixing ratios which have the potential to monitor environmental changes in the fluvial sedimentary record quantitatively.

In this study the proposed concept of measuring the bulk composition of fluvial sediments in order to reconstruct the sediment flux dynamics is applied on the Allier river terraces in Central France. At first the effects of tributaries on the longitudinal sediment composition of the main river (Allier) are investigated. The climatic dynamics are evaluated by comparing Late Weichselian and Holocene sand compositions. After this regional study a more detailed study of the time related sediment mixing dynamics is made by focusing on one confluence.

The sediment bulk measurements are limited to the sands only,

because sands facilitate representative sampling and they are suitable sediments for reconstructing fluvial dynamics (Potter, 1978; Pettijohn et al., 1987). Bulk sand composition is measured geochemically because mineralogical and petrographical analysis is rather cumbersome to derive the bulk composition. Previous bulk geochemical analysis of fluvial sands showed that bulk geochemistry is a suitable tool to characterize the compositional variability of fluvial sediments (Kroonenberg et al., 1988; Moura and Kroonenberg, 1990; Veldkamp and Kroonenberg 1989).

Only the younger terraces are sampled because the older terrace sediments are already so strongly weathered (Veldkamp and Feijtel, 1990) that the original sediment composition cannot be reconstructed.

The study area

The study area (Fig. 3.4.1 and 3.4.2) includes the Late Weichselian terraces of the Allier. This study starts with the investigation of two relative young terrace deposits along a stretch of 100 kilometres (Fig. 3.4.1).

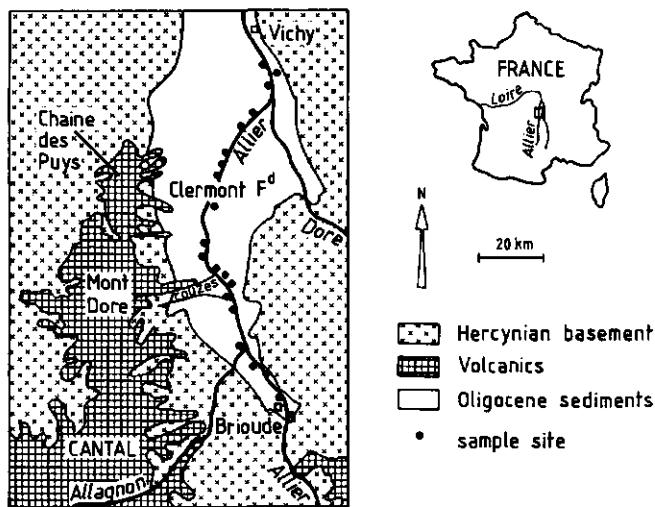


Figure 3.4.1 Allier drainage basin and sample sites along a stretch of 100 km. for the longitudinal variability along Allier.

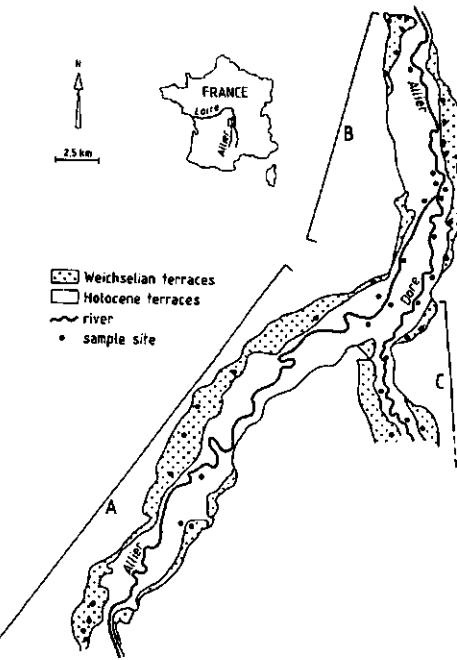


Figure 3.4.2 Study area with sample sites at the Allier/Dore confluence for a study of sediment flux changes at this confluence. The sampled sands are devided into three groups, the Allier sands upstream (A) and those downstream (B) the Allier/Dore confluence and the Dore sands (C).

- (1) The Late Weichselian terrace level (X_{III}), approximately 15 m above present river level, characterized by a large volcanic component (X_a on geological map) (Clozier et al., 1980).
- (2) The Holocene level (ZY), 0 to 5 m above present river, has sediments with a considerably smaller amount of volcanic components than the Late Weichselian deposits (Kroonenberg et al., 1988; Tourenq, 1986).

After this regional study a more detailed study of sediment flux dynamics is carried out at the Allier/Dore confluence where very contrasting sediments mix (Fig. 3.4.2).

The Late Weichselian terraces of the Allier are characterized by two levels at 20 and 10 m above present river level respectively. They have at least four different lithostratigraphical units (Fig. 3.4.3), A Middle Pleniglacial (X_I), two Late Pleniglacial (X_{II} and X_{III}) and a Late Glacial (X_{IV}) unit respectively (Veldkamp and Kroonenberg, 1991). The X_{IV} units was incised during the Pre-Boreal and Boreal, because the oldest known Holocene sediments have Atlanticum ages indicating that most Holocene sediments are relatively recent.

upstream Allier-Dore confluence, downstream Allier-Dore confluence

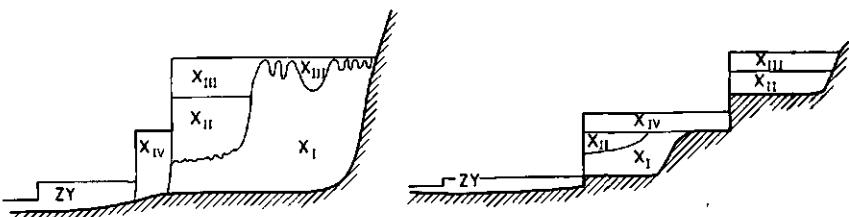


Figure 3.4.3 Schematic stratigraphy of Late Quaternary Allier terraces at the Allier/Dore confluence. The different terrace units have approximately the following ages base on ^{14}C datings:

X _I	30,000 - 29,000 y B.P.
X _{II}	25,000 - 16,500 y B.P.
X _{III}	16,500 - 12,500 y B.P.
X _{IV}	11,000 - 10,000 y B.P.
ZY	< 7000 y B.P.

3.4.2. Materials and methods.

To study the regional longitudinal variation of the Allier sand samples were taken from the Holocene (ZY) and Late Weichselian terrace (X_{III}) along a stretch of almost 100 km (Fig. 3.4.1). Sampling amounted to a total of 38 and 46 samples for Holocene and Late Weichselian terraces respectively. At each sampling site 2-6 samples of different grain size distributions were collected (both fine and coarse sand samples), to incorporate a possible grain size effect. Grain size effects are caused by the depletion or enrichment of certain minerals like heavy minerals, mica's and feldspars in specific fractions (Strakhov, 1969). Previously bulk geochemical investigations of the Allier sands in the section between the Dore and Couze Chambon showed that this grain size effect determined approximately 10% of the total geochemical variability (Kroonenberg et al., 1988). The grain size related sand oxides in the studied Allier section, mainly Na_2O and Al_2O_3 , are so well correlated with grain size that they can be reasonably predicted from grain size data (Veldkamp, 1990).

Near the Allier/Dore confluence extra sand samples were taken along a stretch of 30 km of the Allier river in the different Late Weichselian and Holocene litho-stratigraphical units (Fig. 3.4.2). The sampled sands are divided into three main sampling groups (Fig. 3.4.2), the Allier sands upstream (A) and those downstream (B) the Allier/Dore confluence, and the Dore group (C). The effects of spatial mixing (Best, 1988) and longitudinal sorting effects (Davies et al., 1978) were taken into account (Veldkamp and Staritsky, in press, section 3.3). Sampling amounted to a total of 176 samples ($X_I=39$, $X_{II}=22$, $X_{III}=50$, $X_{IV}=65$) from Late Weichselian stratigraphic units and 54 from Holocene deposits.

Sampling methodology and laboratory treatments and measurements were done according to Kroonenberg et al. (1988) as described in chapter 3.1..

Statistical treatments were performed with SPSSpc (Norusis, 1986). Mean bulk geochemical composition of the terrace sands upstream (A) and downstream (B) the Allier/Dore confluence are listed in Table 3.4.1 and 3.4.2. The average Dore sand (C) composition (Tab. 3.4.3) is known from previous research (Veldkamp and Kroonenberg, 1989).

3.4.3. Results and discussion

Regional variation in sand bulk geochemical longitudinal profiles

Bulk geochemical longitudinal profiles of Allier sands showed that geochemical variability is determined by three major element groups. These groups were also found by the first exploratory investigation by multivariate statistics (Kroonenberg et al., 1988). The first group is characterized by the oxides, TiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , MnO , MgO , CaO and P_2O_5 , which are related to different abundances of basaltic rock fragments. The second group, Na_2O and Al_2O_3 , has a variability related to grain size, and the third group represents variability of the acid crystalline mineral group (K_2O and SiO_2) which is mainly due to differences of K-feldspars, quartz and crystalline rock fragments.

terraces Element	ZY	X _{IV}	X _{III}	X _{II}	X _I
SiO ₂	72.57	70.50	67.51	77.54	78.09
TiO ₂	0.97	1.08	1.35	0.60	0.53
Al ₂ O ₃	10.84	11.53	12.13	10.49	11.02
Fe ₂ O ₃	4.36	4.83	5.78	2.41	1.87
Na ₂ O	1.50	1.57	1.93	1.77	2.04
MgO	1.93	2.85	3.16	1.07	1.03
CaO	2.42	3.62	3.89	1.65	1.53
K ₂ O	2.82	2.68	2.56	2.98	2.57

Table 3.4.1 Mean oxide contents upstream Dore/Allier confluence.

terraces: ZY Element	X _{IV}	X _{III}	X _{II}	X _I	
SiO ₂	76.25	74.31	68.87	78.86	76.61
TiO ₂	0.60	0.85	1.23	0.37	0.56
Al ₂ O ₃	11.19	10.99	12.22	11.09	11.74
Fe ₂ O ₃	2.68	3.66	5.56	1.45	2.38
Na ₂ O	1.53	1.40	1.56	1.60	1.48
MgO	1.16	1.74	2.48	0.59	0.69
CaO	1.50	2.32	3.52	0.94	0.98
K ₂ O	3.41	3.32	2.87	4.02	3.85

Table 3.4.2 Mean oxide contents downstream Dore/Allier confluence.

terraces: ZY Element	X _{IV}	X _{III}	X _{II}	X _I	
SiO ₂	77.99	79.49	81.31	81.31	82.08
TiO ₂	0.18	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.25
Al ₂ O ₃	11.83	11.27	10.19	10.19	10.04
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.81	0.76	0.73	0.73	0.90
Na ₂ O	2.25	2.25	1.70	1.70	1.03
MgO	0.40	0.38	0.33	0.33	0.32
CaO	0.44	0.39	0.22	0.22	0.19
K ₂ O	4.50	4.11	4.23	4.34	4.22

Table 3.4.3 Mean oxide content Dore terrace.

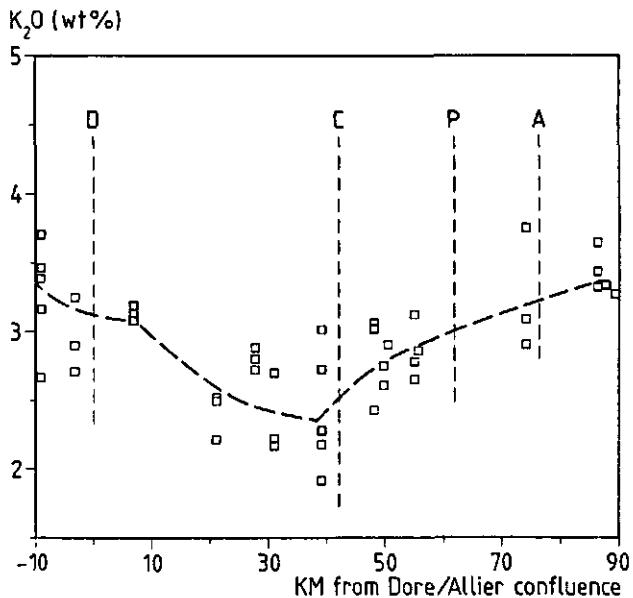


Figure 3.4.4 K_2O (wt%) longitudinal profile (km) from Brioude to Vichy Late Weichselian terrace sand. Allier flow direction is from right to left. The main tributaries are indicated by vertical lines and symbols, A=Allagnon, P=Couze Pavin, C=Couze Chambon, D=Dore.

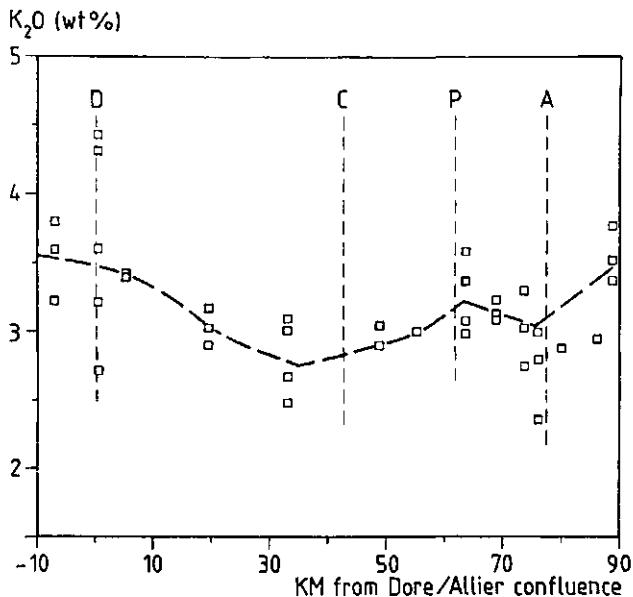


Figure 3.4.5 K_2O (wt%) longitudinal profile (km) from Brioude to Vichy present riverbed sand. Allier flow direction is from right to left. The main tributaries are indicated by vertical lines and symbols, A=Allagnon, P=Couze Pavin, C=Couze Chambon, D=Dore.

One oxide of each group is presented in two longitudinal profiles, one for the Holocene and one for the Late Weichselian sands. K_2O (Fig. 3.4.4 and 3.4.5) represents the acid crystalline component, Na_2O (Fig. 3.4.6 and 3.4.7) the grain size related component and MgO (Fig. 3.4.8 and 3.4.9) the basic volcanic component in the Allier sands. The main tributaries are indicated in each longitudinal profile as vertical lines and symbols, A=Allagnon, P=Couze Pavin, C=Couze Chambon, D=Dore. The Allier flow direction is from south to north (right to left in the profiles of Fig. 3.4.4 to 3.4.10). The changes in general trend as indicated by the broken line are based on average changes in bulk concentrations for the concerning oxide.

K_2O trends

Longitudinal K_2O contents (Fig. 3.4.4 and 3.4.5) indicate gradual changes in sediment composition in both Holocene and Late Weichselian sands. The Allier bulk sand composition shows a relative decrease in K_2O (and SiO_2) content at each tributary draining predominantly volcanic areas such as the Allagnon (A), the Couze Pavin (P) and the Couze Chambon (C). The Dore (D), draining an crystalline area, causes an increase of K_2O content in the Allier sands. The differences of K_2O concentrations between the Late Weichselian and Holocene trends are very slight. It can be observed that the K_2O concentration levels in the Holocene sands are generally higher than in the Late Weichselian sands, illustrating the higher acid crystalline component in these sands.

Na_2O trends

The Na_2O (and Al_2O_3) bulk concentration trends (Fig. 3.4.6 and 3.4.7), predominantly representing changes in the albitic endmember of plagioclase (Kroonenberg et al., 1988) and grain size effects, show a large variance. This can be attributed to the sampling strategy to select samples with different grain size distributions (Veldkamp, 1990). Nevertheless, the Na_2O curve shows major tendencies at tributaries which seem independent from grain size such as the strong increase of Na_2O (and Al_2O_3)

fig 3.4.6

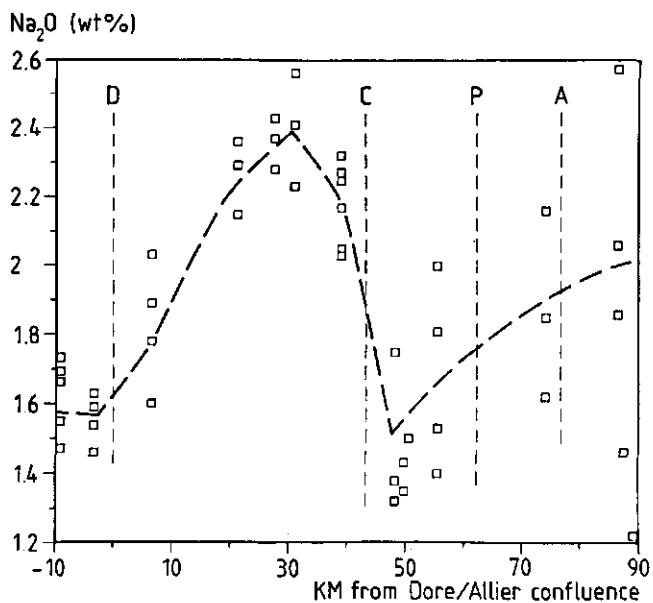


Figure 3.4.6

Na₂O (wt%) longitudinal profile (km) from Brioude to Vichy Late Weichselian terrace sand. Allier flow direction is from right to left. The main tributaries are indicated by vertical lines and symbols, A=Allagnon, P=Couze Pavin, C=Couze Chambon, D=Dore.

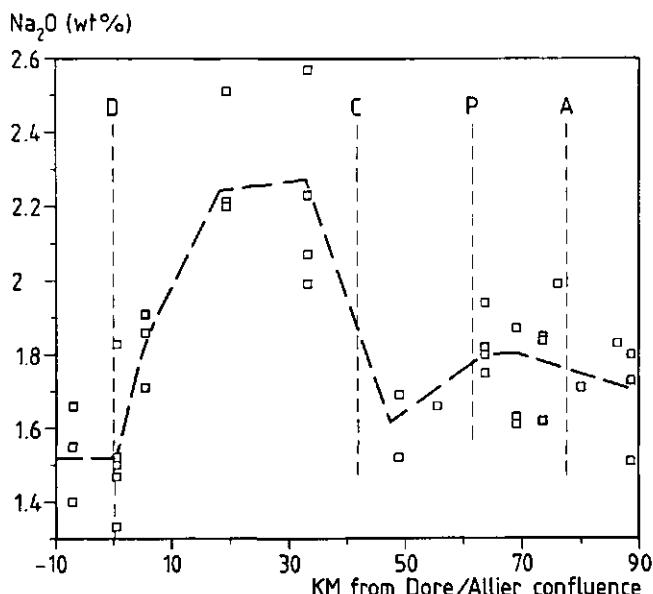


Figure 3.4.7

Na₂O (wt%) longitudinal profile (km) from Brioude to Vichy present riverbed sand. Allier flow direction is from right to left. The main tributaries are indicated by vertical lines and symbols, A=Allagnon, P=Couze Pavin, C=Couze Chambon, D=Dore.

concentrations at the Allier/Couze Chambon confluence. The Na_2O trends south of the Couze Chambon only show a slight general decrease downstream. Further downstream, north of the Couze Chambon there is a stronger decrease in Na_2O concentrations. These decreasing trends downstream seem independent from the tributaries and are probably related to the longitudinal sorting effect caused by backlagging of 'heavy' grains and the breakdown of grains during transport as described by Cameron and Blatt (1971) and Davies et al. (1978).

The profiles for the Holocene and Late Weichselian sands show a strong resemblance. They have approximately equal trends and similar bulk concentration levels. The resemblance of the Na_2O (and Al_2O_3) trends for the Holocene and Late Weichselian sands is probably only related to the specific origin of Na_2O . The Couze Chambon basin contains the majority of the acid volcanic deposits of the Mont Dore, like the trachytic ignimbrite of Neschers. These acid volcanic deposits are well known sources of albite. This can explain the sudden change in Na_2O content in both the Holocene and Late Weichselian longitudinal profiles. Apparently no major changes in provenance occurred from Late Weichselian to recent times.

MgO trends

The bulk concentrations of basic volcanic elements like MgO in the Late Weichselian (Fig. 3.4.8) and Holocene (Fig. 3.4.9) show different trends. In the Late Weichselian sands (Fig. 3.4.8) from Brioude downstream, there is an increase in MgO content at confluences (Allagnon and the Couzes) draining the higher volcanic areas which were glaciated during Late Weichselian (Veyret, 1980). A strong increase in MgO concentration resembling the Na_2O trend, is found at the confluence of the Couze Chambon and the Allier. Further downstream, the high MgO contents of the Late Weichselian terrace at Pont du Château (km 35 in Fig. 3.4.8) clearly reflect high content of volcanic components (Bout, 1963). This section shows a large spread in MgO content.

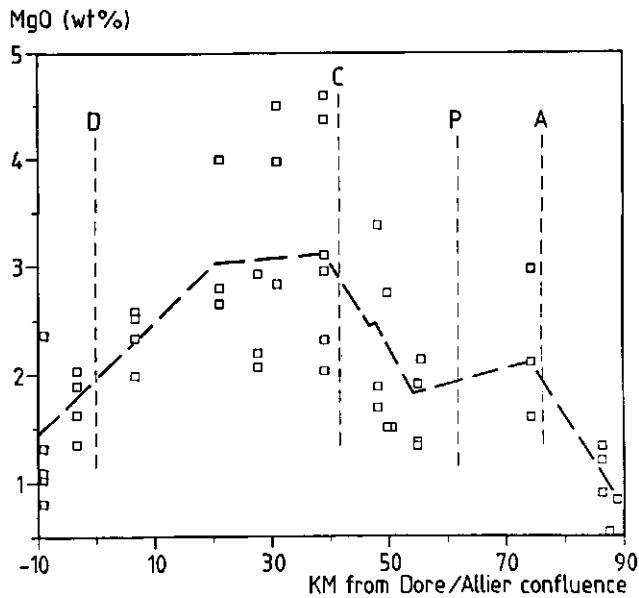


Figure 3.4.8

MgO (wt%) longitudinal profile (km) from Brioude to Vichy
Late Weichselian terrace sand. Allier flow direction is
from right to left. The main tributaries are indicated by
vertical lines and symbols, A=Allagnon, P=Couze Pavin,
C=Couze Chambon, D=Dore.

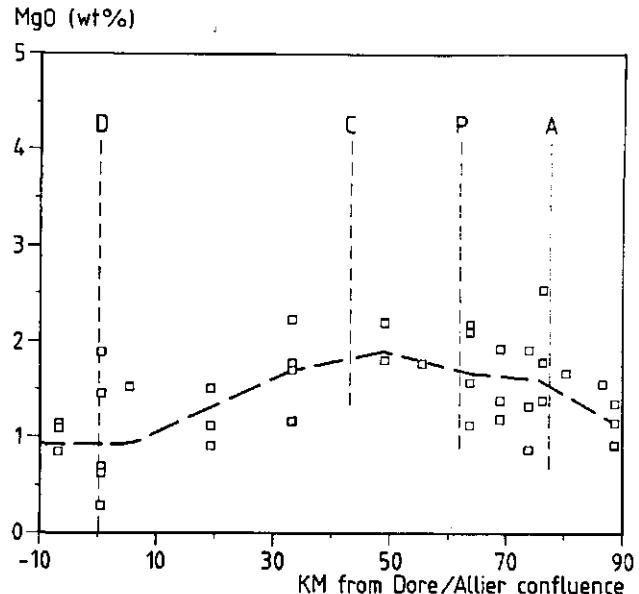


Figure 3.4.9

MgO (wt%) longitudinal profile (km) from Brioude to Vichy
present riverbed sand. Allier flow direction is from right
to left. The main tributaries are indicated by vertical
lines and symbols, A=Allagnon, P=Couze Pavin, C=Couze
Chambon, D=Dore.

Further downstream down to the Dore confluence the longitudinal sorting effect causes a decrease in MgO concentrations downstream, as reported by Kroonenberg et al. (1988). The Dore tributary causes a dilution of basic volcanic particles with abundant crystalline material, resulting in MgO concentration levels which are almost equal to those at Brioude.

In the Holocene sands MgO concentrations (Fig. 3.4.9) change with less sudden changes at the confluences. The amount of MgO in the Allier sands gradually increases at the Allagnon, Couze Pavin and Couze Chambon, and decreases at the Dore confluence. A longitudinal sorting effect seems also be detectable between the Couze Chambon and the Dore. Both longitudinal profiles have comparable trends but the amplitude of the Late Weichselian curve is much larger than that of the Holocene one.

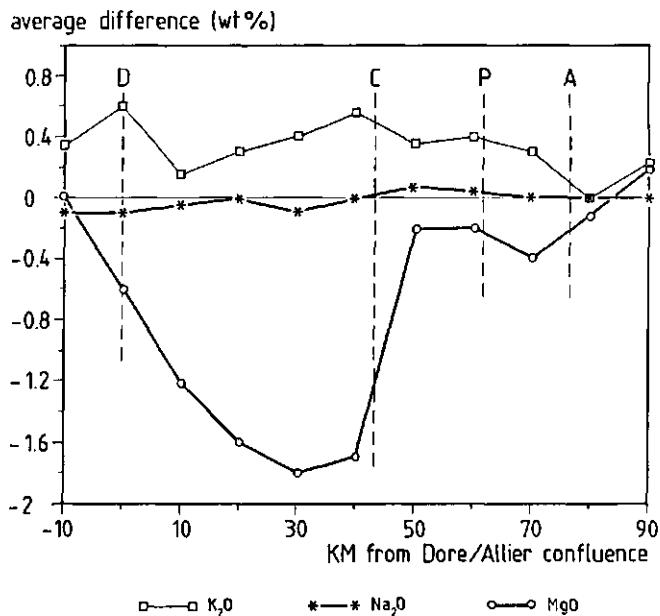


Figure 3.4.10

Longitudinal profile (km) of average differences (wt%) of K_2O , Na_2O and MgO concentrations between Holocene and Late Weichselian sands (Average Holocene - Average Weichselian). Allier flow direction is from right to left. The main tributaries are indicated by vertical lines and symbols, A=Allagnon, P=Couze Pavin, C=Couze Chambon, D=Dore.

A comparison of the Late Weichselian and Holocene sand composition

Both Late Weichselian and Holocene sands show the effect of sediment mixing at confluences. MgO mainly of volcanic origin increases in the Allier sands at the Allagnon, Couze Pavin and Couze Chambon confluences at the expense of K₂O. K₂O from crystalline basement rocks increases only at the Dore confluence.

The differences between oxide contents in the Late Weichselian and Holocene deposits are visualised by plotting the longitudinal trends of the calculated average difference of (K₂O_{hol} - K₂O_{Weich}), (Na₂O_{hol} - Na₂O_{Weich}) and (MgO_{hol} - MgO_{Weich}) (Fig. 3.4.10). The difference between the average Holocene and Late Weichselian Na₂O concentrations are almost zero. Holocene sands are richer in K₂O and poorer in MgO than the Late Weichselian sands. The most striking change from Late Weichselian to Holocene is the relative large negative value for (MgO_{hol} - MgO_{Weich}) at and downstream the Couze Chambon/Allier confluence (Fig. 3.4.10). Apparently much relatively basalt-rich material was supplied to the Allier in Late Weichselian times by the Couze Chambon (Fig. 3.4.8), but this supply ceased during the Holocene (Fig. 3.4.9). This change can obviously not be due to basin lithology or longitudinal sorting. Possible causes for these changes are either climatic changes or Late Weichselian basic volcanism (Bout, 1963; Kroonenberg et al., 1988).

Causes for diverging longitudinal trends

Bout (1963) related the volcanic rich Late Weichselian sediments to a melting phase of the glaciers. His theory is supported by field evidence (Kroonenberg et al., 1988) and by the observation that tributaries related to glaciated areas cause a stronger increase in MgO content in the Late Weichselian sands compared to the Holocene sands (Fig. 3.4.10).

Pastre (1986) and Tourenq (1986) both name volcanism as the major factor causing the relative high volcanic content of the Late Weichselian sediments. The volcanic history of the Allier basin indicates that during the Late Weichselian active volcanism

of the Chaine des Puys took place indeed. Around 27.000 B.P. the Tartaret volcano at the bottom of the Couze Chambon valley emitted a 28 km long basalt flow downstream (Raynal and Daugas, 1984; Raynal et al., 1985). However, no Late Weichselian volcanism is known in the other major tributaries, the Allagnon, Couze Pavin and Dore basins. Therefore, only the relatively large volcanic component at the Couze Chambon in the Late Weichselian sands may be related to the volcanic activity of the Tartaret volcano.

On the other hand there are many Holocene volcanoes known in the Allier, Couze Chambon and Couze Pavin basins (Camus et al., 1983). The trachytic maar of Lac Pavin (5990 ± 115 B.P.; Juvigné and Gewelt, 1987) is the most recent volcanic activity in the Allier basin. Nevertheless, Holocene volcanism did not result in any notable increase in the volcanic component in the Holocene Allier sands. Apparently active volcanism had no direct impact on sand composition.

Therefore Bout's (1963) theory on a paleoclimatic origin for the Late Weichselian increase in volcanic components is more likely. Whereby the role of Late Weichselian volcanism in the Couze Chambon basin cannot be completely excluded. At the end of the Late Pleniglacial melting of glaciers in the higher volcanic areas must have resulted in the release of a considerable quantity of volcanic-rich fluvioglacial sediments. After the glaciers had molten away the fluvioglacial flux from the Allagnon, Couze Pavin and Couze Chambon stopped and the steady base flux of crystalline components became automatically more important during the Holocene.

The preceding evaluation of the longitudinal changes in bulk geochemical sand composition from Late Weichselian to Holocene indicated that not volcanism but climatic changes played the most important role in determining fluvial sand composition. This result implies that climatic changes within the Allier system can be studied from changes and trends in fluvial sand composition. As bulk sand composition was measured it is also possible to reconstruct the past sediment flux dynamics which caused the

measured changes in sediment composition. Now paleoenvironmental changes within the Allier basin can be measured both qualitatively as quantitatively.

As a case study sediment mixing at one confluence the Allier/Dore confluence was studied because at this confluence two very contrasting sediment types mix and mixed.

3.4.4. Sediment mixing at the Allier/Dore confluence

As argued in the introduction may a mixing ratio give a direct indication of the sediment mixing history. This ratio used as a measure of the relative contributions of both Allier and Dore to sediment mixing. The following procedure was used to determine the ratios of the two fluxes which mixed at the Allier/Dore confluence.

The significance of differences in mean oxide content for each litho-stratigraphical unit (Table 3.4.1 and 3.4.2) was determined by means of multiple comparisons according to the Tukey method. The significance of change in mean Allier sediment composition at the Allier/Dore confluence was determined by students t-tests for each stratigraphical unit, using the SPSSpc package (Norusis, 1986). Mean SiO₂, TiO₂, Fe₂O₃, MgO, CaO and K₂O content are significant different (at the 0.05 level) for the ZY, X_{IV}, X_{III} and X_{II} units, while the X_I unit differs only significantly from the other terrace units in MgO, CaO and K₂O content. Therefore only MgO, CaO and K₂O contents are used further as trend oxides for sediment compositional changes of the Allier during the last 30,000 years. The compositional dynamics are plotted as bulk chemo-stratigraphy of the sediment groups upstream (A) and downstream (B) the Allier/Dore confluence in Figure 3.4.11. The composition of the litho-stratigraphic units upstream (A) and downstream (B) the Allier/Dore confluence show different trends in time.

It is obvious that the oxides of basaltic origin MgO and CaO have complementary trends with the crystalline K₂O (Kroonenberg et al., 1988). The oldest Late Weichselian sands (X_I and X_{II}) are relatively poor in volcanic oxides MgO and CaO and rich in acid crystalline K₂O.

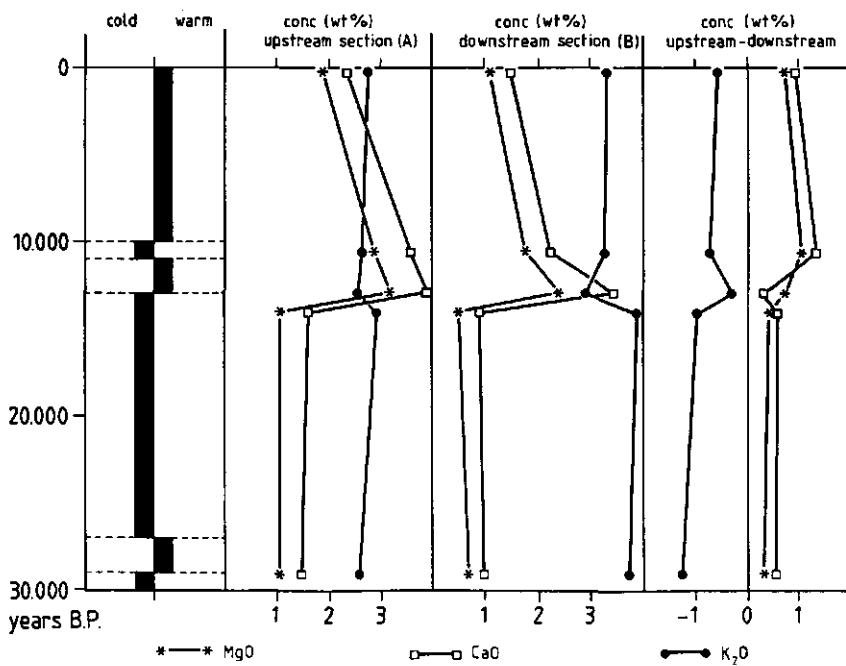


Figure 3.4.11 Correlation of changes in bulk sediment composition with climate at the Allier/Dore confluence.

The X_{III} sands have opposite characteristics, they are very rich in MgO and CaO and poor in K₂O. In the X_{IV} -unit sands the CaO and MgO contents are slightly lower (K₂O higher) than in the X_{III} sands. The basaltic oxide content decreases further in the Holocene (ZY) sands.

Within each Allier terrace unit mean MgO, CaO and K₂O contents also show significant changes at the Allier/Dore confluence. The MgO and CaO content decrease at the confluence while the K₂O content increases in all Allier terrace units. These relative changes are visualized in Figure 3.4.11, where the changes in (Ox wt%) CaO, MgO and K₂O content (Upstream Ox wt% - Downstream Ox wt%) of the Allier sands are plotted against age. The general compositional trends of Fig. 3.4.11 confirm the picture of a main

stream with volcanic rich sediment (Allier) which is diluted by a volcanic poor sediment (Dore). This dilution effect is very small for the X_{III} sands (Upstream Ox wt% - Downstream Ox wt% are small) and large for the X_{II} sands.

Mixing ratio

The mass ratio of the Allier and Dore sands which mixed at the confluence (sand mixing ratio) can be calculated for different oxides (bulk Ox wt %) and time periods. This is done by the following formula:

$$\text{Sand mixing ratio} = \frac{\text{(Ox wt\% Allier downstream - Ox wt\% Dore)}}{\text{(Ox wt\% Allier upstream - Ox wt\% Allier downstream)}}$$

$$-----$$

Sand mixing ratio's of terrace units are only calculated for those oxides which show a significant change at the confluence (Table 3.4.4). A sand mixing ratio >1 indicates a larger and a ratio <1 a smaller Allier sand contribution to the Allier/Dore sediment mixing than the Dore. Differences in calculated ratios (Tab. 3.4.4) should be carefully reviewed.

terrace Element	ZY	X_{IV}	X_{III}	X_{II}	X_I
SiO ₂	0.47	1.36	9.15	1.86	ns
TiO ₂	1.14	3.04	9.00	0.96	ns
Al ₂ O ₃	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Fe ₂ O ₃	1.11	2.48	21.95	0.75	ns
Na ₂ O	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
MgO	0.99	1.23	3.16	0.54	1.09
CaO	1.15	1.48	8.9	1.01	1.44
K ₂ O	1.85	1.23	4.38	0.31	0.29
Average	1.12	1.80	9.42	0.91	0.94

ns = no significant change at confluence

Table 3.4.4 Mixing ratios at Allier/Dore confluence.

A difference between a ratio of 2 and 10 equals the difference between a ratio of 0.5 and 0.1, and with a large or small mixing ratio the estimation error increases strongly. Both effects contribute to the large variability in mixing ratios within each terrace unit. Therefore only average sand mixing ratios are used in this research.

The average sand mixing ratios (Table 3.4.4) in time, illustrating general sand mixing dynamics of Allier and Dore are shown in Figure 3.4.12.

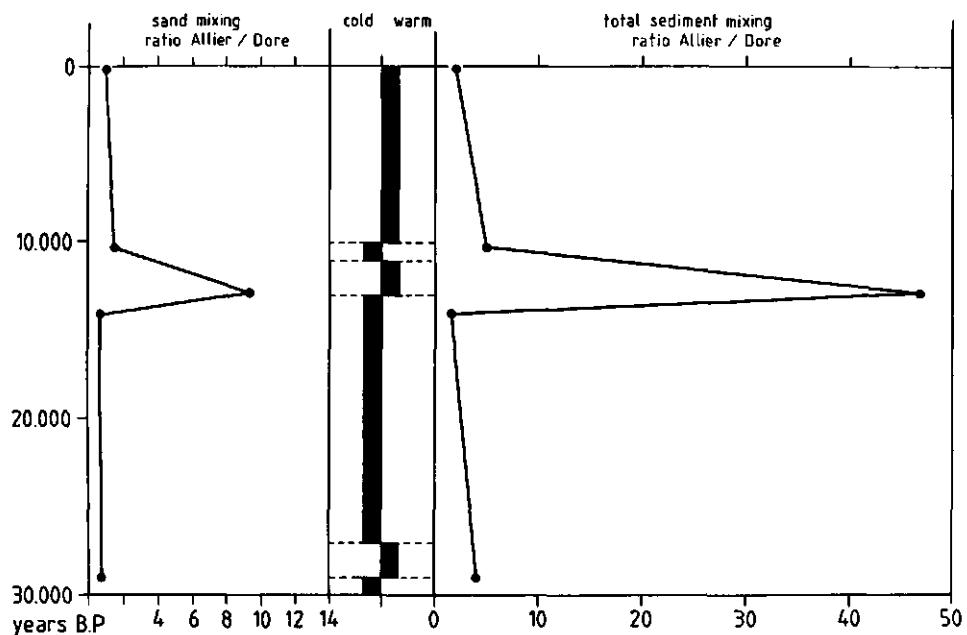


Figure 3.4.12 Changes in sand and total mixing ratio's in time at the Allier/Dore confluence.

Striking is the large mixing ratio of the X_{III} sands suggesting a very large sediment flux in the Allier. During deposition of X_{II} sediments the Dore contributed 1.7 times more sand than the Allier, whilst the Allier contributed about 6 times more sand than the Dore when the X_{III} sediments were deposited.

Mixing ratios for Fe₂O₃ and TiO₂ are usually higher than the mixing ratios of MgO and K₂O for the same terrace units (Tab. 3.4.4), suggesting an oxide dependence of the mixing ratio. These higher ratio's point to an enrichment of the minerals containing Fe and Ti, the heavy minerals. It is generally known that heavy minerals tend to concentrate at confluences (Schumm, 1977). Further research is needed to see whether the mixing ratio has any value in detecting mineral enrichment (placers) at former confluences.

As both Allier and Dore have known changes in the amount of supplied sediment in time, their mixing ratio only records changes relative to each other. The actual compositional differences in the Dore terrace sands are mainly caused by post-depositional weathering which does not play a dominant role in the younger sediments studied in this research (Veldkamp and Kroonenberg, 1989). As there are no indications that the Dore has known any constrains in sediment supply in time, Dore sediments can be seen as a relative constant geochemical reference for the Allier sediment dynamics. As the Dore basin had no major changes during the last 30.000 years it can be assumed that the Allier/Dore mixing ratio predominantly reflects changes in Allier sediment fluxes.

The proportion of sand with respect to the total gravel, sand and clay content in the Dore is much higher then in the Allier. From the sampled gravel and sand pits estimates of the relative sand proportions of Allier and Dore deposits have been made (Table 3.4.5). Assuming that the terrace sediments give a good representation of the sediment fluxes that mixed during their deposition, the estimated proportions can be used to convert the average sand mixing ratio into a total sediment mixing ratio.

Terrace unit	Estimated sand contribution Allier/Dore	Total sediment mixing Allier and Dore
ZY	0.5	2.3
X _{IV}	0.33	5.4
X _{III}	0.2	47.1
X _{II}	0.5	1.8
X _I	0.2	4.7

Table 3.4.5 Total mixing ratios of sediments Allier and Dore

This mixing ration is the mass ratio of the bulk terrace sediments which actually mixed during deposition of each terrace units (Table 3.4.5).

The total mixing ratios of the X_I, X_{III} and X_{IV} sediments (Tab. 3.4.5, Fig. 3.4.12) increase considerably compared to the sand mixing ratio. The X_{III} sediments show a sediment flux of the Allier almost 50 times the Dore contribution during sediment mixing.

3.4.5. Sediment fluxes and climate

Mixing characteristics of Allier and Dore sediments suggest that sediment fluxes of the Allier, compared to the Dore sediments, show cyclic changes in time. The X_I sediments deposited at the end of the Middle Pleniglacial show a five time larger contribution of Allier than of Dore sediments. The local Late Pleniglacial sediments (X_{II}) yield a sediment mixing ratio which indicates an Allier contribution of only twice the Dore supply. This small mixing ratio may be explained by the periglacial environment and by the building up of extensive glaciers in the upper Allier basin storing large quantities of potential Allier sediments. Deglaciation during the end of the Late Pleniglacial released an enormous mass of fluvioglacial sediments into the Allier (X_{III}), causing the large sediment flux represented by the X_{III} sediment mixing ratio. This large sediment flux (about fifty times the Dore contribution) was deposited during catastrophic events within a few thousand years. Evidence of the catastrophic character of the X_{III} deposition is given by Lenselink et al. (1990). Sediments deposited during the short

colder interval of the Younger Dryas (X_{IV}) have a mixing ratio of about 5, similar as that of the X_I sediments. This is probably due to the fact that both cold intervals were too short for extensive glacier build up, but long enough for a major environmental change.

The reconstructed relative sediment fluxes of the Allier at the Allier/Dore confluence confirm the general idea as found by comparison of the Late Weichselian and Holocene longitudinal profiles, that sediment fluxes in the Allier basin are mainly a function of climate. The observed trend is that during periglacial and interglacial environments the Allier supplies only twice as much sediments as the Dore, only at the end of a glacial the relative Allier contribution increases strongly to five times the Dore supply. After a prolonged cold period during which extensive glaciers can built up in the headwaters of the Allier, very large sediment fluxes can be expected in the Allier as a result of glacier melting. These fluvioglacial sediment fluxes can increase to fifty times the Dore contribution.

The results suggest that there exists a correlation between the sediment flux magnitude and the duration and intensity of glacials. It would be interesting to investigate such quantitative relationships in areas with well known past environments.

3.4.6. Methodological evaluation

It has been shown that changes in bulk geochemical sand composition in a fluvial system can be applied in Quaternary research as a method to reconstruct paleohydrology in relation with paleoenvironmental changes. It is obvious that this methodology is only applicable in well dated fluvial systems.

Within the described case study it remains difficult to validate the assumption that the calculated mixing ratio's display mainly Allier dynamics instead of Dore dynamics or both. The reconstructed time related sediment fluxes are difficult to validate, they can be only compared to a relative sediment load curve for the last 15.000 years, based on interpretations of

concepts for Central European river valleys (Starkel, 1983). Although both curves are constructed by different methods, it can be observed that they show a fairly match for the 15.000 to 10.000 years BP interval, but the magnitudes of changes in both curves differ strongly. Fig. 3.4.12 has of course only local validity but illustrates that it is also well possible to reconstruct sediment flux magnitudes more directly and quantitatively than Starkel (1983) did.

The results suggest a quantitative relationship between sediment flux magnitude and paleoenvironment. When more reconstructions are made it may be possible to construct a continental sediment flux record which gives quantitative indications of the past glacials. Such a record would be complementary with the existing palynological records which give mainly accurate descriptions of the warmer paleoenvironments.

3.4.7. Conclusions

Longitudinal abrasion, sorting and tributary sediment fluxes mainly determine longitudinal trends in geochemical bulk composition of the Late Weichselian and Holocene Allier sands. Changes in tributary sand composition from Late Weichselian to Holocene seem predominantly caused by climatic changes, as volcanic activity or other changes in source terrain did not show any direct measurable effect. Sediment flux dynamics at the Allier/Dore confluence are reconstructed for the last 30.000 years by calculating mixing ratios from changes in bulk geochemical sediment composition in time. These reconstructed sediment fluxes correlate strongly with climatic changes during the last 30.000 years. Allier sediment supply seems to depend mainly on the type and duration of climatic episodes.

The surprising good correlation between the reconstructed Allier sediment fluxes and paleoenvironment suggests that the methodology applied is a promising technique in Quaternary research.

LONG TERM MODELLING OF RIVER TERRACE FORMATION

Within geomorphology the use of long term models has increased strongly in recent years. As geomorphological theories have mostly been validated for small spatial and temporal scales only, they are not necessarily appropriate for the larger range of scales (Howes & Anderson, 1988). Constraints in the development of longterm geomorphological models are therefore mostly due to the interrelationships between conceptualization and scale (Anderson & Sambles, 1988). Especially longterm simulations are hampered by the lack of large scale quantified knowledge. There are two main reasons, for this poverty:

- 1) One can envisage short-term (high-frequency) variations nested within long-term (lower-frequency) variations (Bradley, 1985). As only short-term processes are measured in experimental studies we can only guess at the quantitative effects of the long-term processes.
- 2) Depending on the scale at which an environmental system is viewed, there are different sets of laws which operate. This scale effect causes that process or system variables which are system dependent at higher order scales may become independent if the order of scale is reduced (Huggett, 1985). Due to these scale effects, extrapolation of experimental results to large scales will certainly lead to considerable errors (Schumm, et al., 1987; Howes & Anderson, 1988).

These scale gaps in geomorphology can only partly be filled by more research. According to Huggett (1985) there is not much that can be done about the scale problem; the important thing is to be aware of its existence. The scale problem illustrates that the description of the geomorphological system as a complex, inaccessible, scale dependent and inherently random natural system (Howes & Anderson, 1988), is well chosen. According to the same authors, there is an upper limit to the degree of numerical modelling which is possible for such systems. They found it necessary to consider alternative modelling strategies and

techniques for use in these situations (Howes & Anderson, 1988).

The aim of this chapter is to discuss a possible alternative modelling strategy for the geomorphological scale problems that arise with long term modelling. Instead of using unreliable quantitative relations in numerical modelling, additional qualitative descriptive modelling is proposed.

Scale dependent modelling

An important step in long term modelling is the determination of the scale dependent system variable hierarchy. The system and process variables are listed in hierarchy with increasing degrees of dependence. Depending on the time span involved, time may be either an extremely important independent variable or of relative little significance to a geomorphologic study (Schumm & Lichtry, 1965).

Another scale modelling aspect is the source scale of the used numerical relationships in the model. This scale aspect can be determined by a systematic scale analysis. Such a scale analysis is based on the assumption that relationships can only be used in a model when they are applied on the same scale as on which the original measurements were done. The scale analysis can be done in a very similar way as the commonly applied unit analysis, except that not only the units should match but also their magnitude. Such a model scale analysis can be applied successfully for relative short time spans. On such scales, a model scale analysis should be incorporated as a standard procedure in geomorphological modelling.

Modelling over long time spans

When a scale analysis is strictly applied on longer time spans, thousands of years or even longer, it can be concluded that reliable quantitative modelling is actually impossible. Most knowledge on such timespans is descriptive and interpretative.

But it is the large time scale which attracts many geomorphologists as most landforms are the result of long term processes.

The scale problem is sometimes 'solved' by a number of assumptions. In such cases it is assumed that a short time span relationship can be extrapolated to a longer timespan. A very creative solution is given by Tetzlaff & Harbaugh (1989) who used 'compute-and-drift' and 'compute-and-stop' schemes to overcome long time spans. These schemes use short term calculations for longterm simulations. In case a direct application of such a relationship does not work out properly, a scale (tuning) factor is included to obtain more realistic results. It is obvious that this approach obscures the lack of knowledge and suggests a simple straight forward solution of the scale problem which certainly does not exist.

Another approach of long term modelling is to abandon the goal to make a full numerical model, as there is too less quantitative knowledge for that purpose. Consequently it is decided to use also the knowledge which is sufficiently available, qualitative descriptive relations. Modelling with both quantitative and qualitative relations can be done with finite state modelling (Zeigler, 1976).

Finite state modelling

A finite state model describes a system which can be in different states at different times. The basic principles of finite state modelling are to choose a finite sets of inputs, states and outputs, and to specify for each state combination one and only one transition to another state in case a change in state takes place.

A system behaviour can be represented as a finite state model in a scheme, flowchart or table, showing the system states and state transitions, including the conditions when changes of state take place. The state descriptions and transitions can be as well descriptive as quantitative.

The most uncertain and difficult part of finite state

modelling is extracting the qualitative information from literature. A major problem is that descriptive knowledge contains many uncertainties commonly indicated by words as, 'probably', 'may be', 'could be', 'is thought to', etc. When extracting the essential facts one has to generalize certain facts and relations. A way to support the extraction of this kind of knowledge is by keeping in mind that at the end of the modelling activities the model has to be written down in a computer language, for instance PASCAL. When the simple and limited syntax of PASCAL is taken into account one can construct several 'rules' for knowledge extraction who facilitate finite state modelling. Two important rules are for example:

- 1) No uncertainties are allowed in the extracted relationships, a state or a relationship exists or does not exist (A state can only be true or false).
- 2) The reasoning and combining of information can only be done with use of AND, OR, THEN, UNTIL, CASE, FOR ... DO, IF ... ELSE, REPEAT ...UNTIL, WHILE ... DO etc. (Findlay & Watt, 1981).

As it is the task of linguists to develop such kind of rules, it is beyond the scope of this chapter and will therefore not be discussed in detail. But it becomes obvious that by applying this kind of modelling the computer is not only used as a calculator but also as a reasoning machine.

Because model states are unique and they have only one possible transition to another state, decision rules can be used to define these transitions. It are these decision rules who are directly programmable and can be looked upon as model thresholds. Although, Begin & Schumm (1984) showed that system thresholds are commonly gradual, they can be looked upon as abrupt on a large timescale, implying that finite state modelling is scale dependent.

Validity of finite state models

By using qualitative knowledge in finite state modelling the

validity of modelling is only on the conceptual level. Concepts and hypothesis can be tested and evaluated by simulations of certain scenario's. When the time scale is reduced the numerical portion increases, but the validity remains at the conceptual level.

Conclusions

Finite state modelling, allowing the application of qualitative descriptive relations in a model, is proposed as an alternative strategy for long term modelling in geomorphology. By this kind of modelling the computer is not only used as a calculator but also as a reasoning machine. Models made according to the finite state principle have only validy on the conceptual level and should display the actual state of knowledge on the subject. Even if it is possible to construct a complete numerical model, the strategy of finite state modelling can make the geomorphologist more aware of the limited validity of long term models.

4.1. RIVER TERRACE FORMATION, MODELLING, AND 3-D GRAPHICAL SIMULATION.

Veldkamp A. & Vermeulen S.E.J.W.

Abstract

A model on river terrace formation is presented, written in PASCAL and run on a VAX 8600. The model calculates the influence of a fluvial system on the relief of an area with macroscopical dimensions (10 km x 20 km x 0.5 km) over a period of 2.5 million years. Model input relies on uplift and alternations in discharge and sediment load as a function of climatic changes. The output of the model are 3-dimensional grid drawings which visualize the impact of uplift, discharge, and sediment load on a landscape. Model formulation is based on empirical information on fluvial systems, which was incorporated in the model by means of a slightly adapted way of finite state modelling in which decisions act as thresholds. The model is organized using two entities, 'River' and 'Landscape' with attributes that have values within a specific realistic domain. The model produces plausible (x,y,z) and (x,y,t) plots in the light of existing geomorphological theories. The described modelling procedure shows that it is possible to simulate river terrace formation three dimensionally with the use of empirical information.

4.1.1 Introduction

The fluvial system in dynamic equilibrium is able to adjust itself to changes of external variables by changing its internal variables like channel depth and width, river roughness, mean velocity, channel form, and slope (Schumm, 1977; Dawson & Gardiner, 1987). River terrace formation can be looked upon as a result of changes in equilibrium, caused by variation in external variables like climate, tectonic and base level (Dury, 1970; Léger, 1983). The natural systems are so complex, and develop on such long time spans, that even laboratory experiments (e.g. Schumm et al., 1977) can only partly reveal part of their functioning. Computer simulation is increasingly recognized as a novel way to understand the way geomorphic systems work (e.g. Anderson, 1988). Modelling and simulation comprise the activities involved in constructing a model of a real world system and simulating it on a computer (Elzas, 1978). To gain insight in river terrace formation, a simulation model was developed which graphically describes changes in a landscape due to changes of a fluvial system in time. This is an extension of the research on simulation of river terrace formation by Boll et al. (1988). Their model appeared to be unsuitable for three-dimensional

application, making a new approach necessary. To make an overall model construction possible some oversimplifications have to be made in those cases in which no accurate data or relations are available. The developed model consists of an algorithm of 575 lines written in PASCAL and runs on a VAX 8600. This algorithm is available on request. The model construction, its properties, and relations will be discussed first, followed by a simulation example with input and output.

4.1.2. Materials and methods

Model construction in this study started with the choice of a type of model which would best fit the objective to gain insight in terrace formation. Due to lack of accurate and detailed information, a macroscopical empirical description of fluvial systems was selected as a basis for model formulation. Subsequently, a discrete time model was constructed, which simulates generalities of terrace formation.

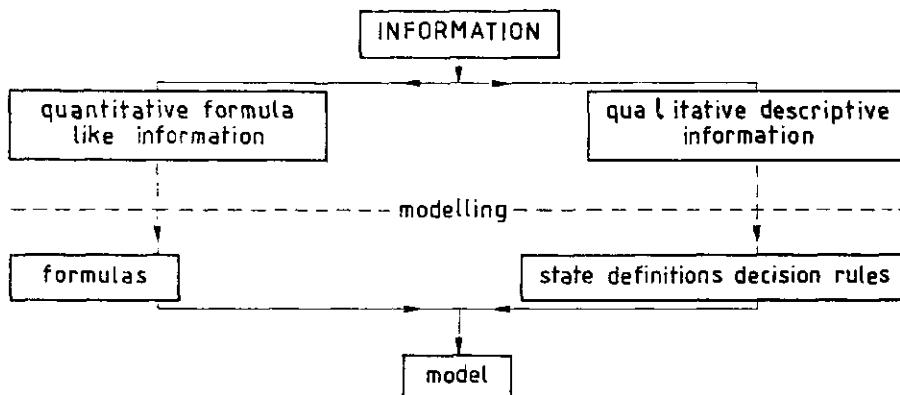


Figure 4.1.1 Modelling with two groups of information

4.1.3. Model construction

The information used in modelling can be divided into two major groups (Fig. 4.1.1): (1) quantitative, often empirical formulas, and (2) descriptive, qualitative knowledge. Since both types of information are indispensable for the model, the qualitative knowledge was incorporated as well, using finite state modelling methods (Zeigler, 1976), slightly adapted to our needs as described in the introduction of chapter 4. Grammatical analysis can be used to test the certainty and utility of descriptive information. Since no simplified grammatical analysis exists, a set of prohibition rules on Dutch grammar was stated and used in analyzing texts. Those prohibition rules are based on the simple and limited syntax of PASCAL (Findlay & Watt, 1978), and the sequential calculations of the central processing unit. Since we are no linguists the grammar rules used can be looked upon as very primitive implements only, and will therefore not be discussed in this paper.

States

Erosion	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
Channel form	M M M M M B B B B B M M M M M B B B B B
Uplift	1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 0 0

Resulting processes:

Incision	1 1 1 ? ? 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
Bank-erosion	0 0 0 ? ? 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
Deposition	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

M= Meandering channel

B= Braided channels (note meandering excludes braided and vice versa)

1= true

0= false

?= Unknown which erosion process will act.

Table 4.1.1 Matching of states and the resulting deposition and erosion processes.

In order to define the transition from one state to another, decision rules are used. The states of the model, which are only true or false, change at certain defined boundary conditions. Different states, are separated by thresholds and as such represent discontinuities in a system (Hugget, 1985). In the following example the state combinations of a fluvial system which result in a combination of incision and bank erosion or

deposition are listed in Table 4.1.1 (extracted from Schumm, 1977, 74-91). However, it has to be noted that other texts will yield other states. The question marks in Table 4.1.1 visualize gaps in knowledge about erosion under various uplift and channel form states. To fill up these gaps some assumptions were made. In the model the question marks were replaced by 'true'. An advantage of using finite state modelling for the qualitative knowledge is that the relations of Table 4.1.1 are easily translated into decision rules in PASCAL:

IF EROSION AND	
UPLIFT AND MEANDER	THEN INCISION
UPLIFT AND BRAIDED	THEN INCISION AND BANK_EROSION
NOT UPLIFT AND MEANDER	THEN INCISION AND BANK_EROSION
NOT UPLIFT AND BRAIDED	THEN BANK_EROSION
IF NOT EROSION	THEN DEPOSITION
	(disregarding all other conditions)

These rules can be incorporated in the model algorithm.

Model organization

When different textbooks are used, a well defined and formalized organization is needed. A hierarchical organization structure, similar to common data base organizations was chosen. Model organization, as presented in Table 4.1.2, was done with the use of entities and attributes. An entity was defined as an independent, commonly compound, unit in the object system. An attribute is a property, mark or characteristic usually variable of an entity in the studied object system. The entities defined, RIVER and LANDSCAPE are described by their attributes, each with values in a realistic domain. The interactions between the two entities are defined as PROCESSES. These processes are simplifications of the geological processes, and were directly programmed in the model algorithm. The LANDSCAPE relief was defined as an (x,y) matrix, with two stored values in each grid cell (100m x 200m): altitude z (m) and time of deposition t (ky). This matrix is used as the model output and makes GIS

Table 4.2.2

A.	Time	:1 < Time < 2500 (Ky)
B. Entities		
1.	Entity: RIVER	
Attributes		Domain
1.1 Discharge		:20 < Discharge < 280 ($m^3 s^{-1}$)
1.2 Input_load		:0 < Input_load < 3.0 E ⁻³ ($m^3 s^{-1}$)
1.3 Form		:meandering or braided
1.3.1 Width		:400 < Flood_plain_width < 1500 (m)
1.3.2 Maxload		:7.05E ⁻⁵ < Maxload < 3.5E ⁻³ ($m^3 s^{-1}$)
1.4 Erosion		:-2.1E ⁻³ < Qerosion < 3.5E ⁻³ ($m^3 ky^{-1}$)
2.	Entity: LANDSCAPE	
Attributes		Domain
2.1 Uplift		:0 < Uplift < 0.4 (m/ky)
2.2 Relief x,y,z		:100 < x < 10000 (m) 100 < y < 10000 (m) 1 < z < 500 (m)
2.2.1 Valley_depth		:20 < Valley_depth < 500 (m)
2.2.2 Stratigraphy		:0 < stratigraphy < 2500 (ky)
2.4 Valley_width		:400 < Valley_width < 9500 (m)
C.	Processes	
1	Uplift	:Uplift whole relief
2	Erosion	:Relief denudation, a relief volume decrease
2.1		:Vertical erosion, denudation of the valley bottom.
2.2		:Horizontal erosion, denudation of the river banks.
3	Sedimentation	:built up of the relief, an relief volume increase

Table 4.1.2 Model organization

applications like the creation of single value maps possible. The selected relief magnitude, 10 km x 20 km x 0.5 km (x,y,z), size of middle scale rivers, reflects the macroscopical scale of the simulation. This also applies for the selected timespan of 2.5 million years (in time steps of 1000 years), due to the fact that most terraces in major river basins started to form at the beginning of the Quaternary. The domain limits, as used for each attributes (Tab. 4.1.2), were derived from published data on middle scale fluvial systems (Leopold et al., 1964). Climate and tectonics are external input variables for the model. Discharge and sediment load are input functions which were assumed to vary as a result of climatic change only.

4.1.4. Model Operation

At each time step (of 1 ky) a certain scenario is considered to compute model behaviour. Calculations of the volume to erode or deposit were followed by state determinations and calculations which determine the boundaries of relief changes and the processes which change the landscape. Discharge and input load are the input functions used to calculate the relief volume that changes during one time step. MAXLOAD, which is the maximum load at the current discharge, is calculated according to equation 1 derived from Boll et al., (1988).

$$\text{MAXLOAD} = L1 \times \text{DISCHARGE}^2 + L2 \times \text{DISCHARGE} + L3 \times \text{DISCHARGE} \quad (1)$$

with:

MAXLOAD	:	Maximum load	(m^3s^{-1})
L1	:	Suspended load factor	(sm^{-3})
L2	:	Dissolved load factor	(-)
L3	:	Bed load factor	(-)
DISCHARGE	:	Discharge	(m^3s^{-1})

L1, L2 and L3 are factors which represent respectively the dissolved, suspended and bed load component of the maximum load of a river. These factors have different values for a meandering

and a braided river and are used to tune the model. For a meandering river $L1 = 2.2 \times 10^{-8} (\text{sm}^{-3})$, $L2 = 3 \times 10^{-6} (-)$ and $L3 = 1.15 \times 10^{-6} (-)$, for a braided river $L1 = 1.9 \times 10^{-8} (\text{sm}^{-3})$, $L2 = 3.2 \times 10^{-6} (-)$ and $L3 = 1.3 \times 10^{-6} (-)$. One of the model assumptions is that at each timestep the river enters the landscape with input load and leaves it with the maximum load. This condition makes it possible to calculate the erosion or deposition quantity (Qerosion) with use of the mass balance of Equation 2.

$$\text{QEROSION} = \text{MAXLOAD} - \text{INPUT_LOAD} \quad (2)$$

with:

QEROSION	: Erosion or sedimentation quantity	$(\text{m}^3\text{s}^{-1})$
MAXLOAD	: Maximum load of the system	$(\text{m}^3\text{s}^{-1})$
INPUT_LOAD	: Input load	$(\text{m}^3\text{s}^{-1})$

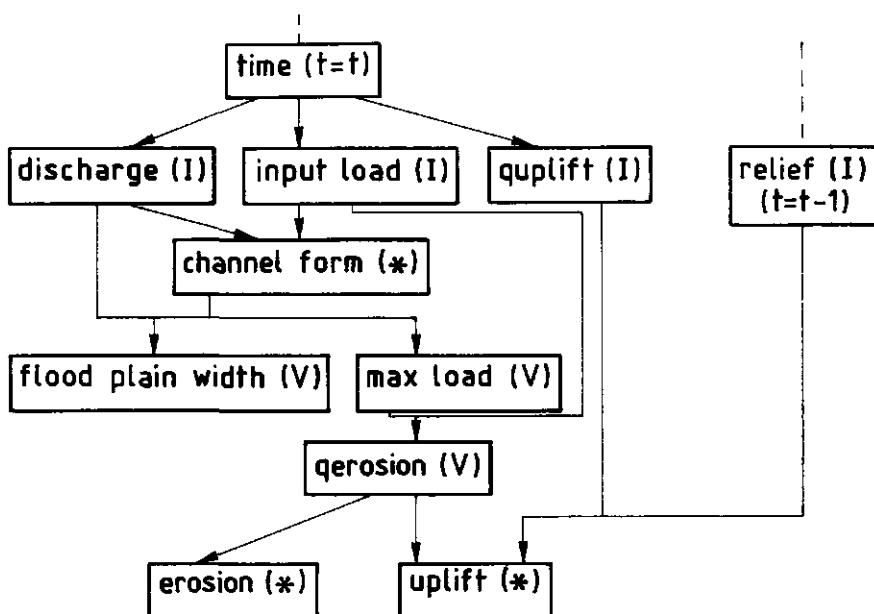


Figure 4.1.2 Flowchart of the model inputs (I), states (*) and variables (V).

The flowchart of Figure 4.1.2 shows how inputs, states and variables are used in the model. [Uplift], [Erosion] and [Channel form] are the states used to determine the process(es). [Uplift] becomes true when the fluvial system cannot compensate the uplift by erosion during one time step. [Erosion] is true when the calculations of the erosion quantity indicate a positive volume (QEROSION). The [Channel from] (meandering or braided) is determined by changes in discharge and input load, according to the following decision rules, which were indirectly derived from qualitative relations formulated by Schumm (1977, 135).

IF $Q_{t-1} < Q_t$ AND $LOAD_{t-1} > LOAD_t$ THEN MEANDERING IS TRUE

IF $Q_{t-1} < Q_t$ AND $LOAD_{t-1} < LOAD_t$ THEN FORM_{t-1} IS TRUE

IF $Q_{t-1} > Q_t$ AND $LOAD_{t-1} > LOAD_t$ THEN FORM_{t-1} IS TRUE

IF $Q_{t-1} > Q_t$ AND $LOAD_{t-1} < LOAD_t$ THEN BRAIDED IS TRUE

with:

Q_{t-1} : Discharge of the preceding time step ($m^3 s^{-1}$)

Q_t : Discharge ($m^3 s^{-1}$)

$LOAD_{t-1}$: Input load of preceding time step ($m^3 s^{-1}$)

$LOAD_t$: Input load ($m^3 s^{-1}$)

FORM_{t-1} : Channel form of preceding time step (-)

Floodplain width and valley slope are two model variables which act as boundaries between which relief changes take place. Since the valley slope calculations did not yield any visible changes, the slope was assumed constant (0.005 m m^{-1}). This insensitivity of valley slope is due to the relatively high minimum quantity to be eroded or deposited. The floodplain width for a braided river is not calculated, but comprises the whole width of the lowest level in a cross-section. Chorley et al., (1984, 310) stated that it is likely that there exists a relation between meander wave length (Lambda) and valley width. In this study the relation 'floodplain width of a meandering river is 0.5 Lambda' is used. Equation (3) is derived from the sinuosity formula of a meandering river from Schumm (1977, 115).

$$\text{FLOOD_PLAIN_WIDTH} = 0.5 \times 30 \times (\text{DISCHARGE}/0.028)^{0.5} \quad (3)$$

with:

FLOOD_PLAIN_WIDTH	:	Flood plain width of a meandering river	(m)
DISCHARGE	:	Discharge	($m^3 s^{-1}$)

The model processes, i.e., (1) erosion, subdivided into incision and bank erosion, and (2) deposition, are used to distribute mass transport over the x and y-axis (for instance increase of z-values of grid cells because of sedimentation process), as indicated in Figure 4.1.3. The incision process reduces the z value of the grid cells in the lowest part of a cross-section with one unit, and bank erosion raises the width in the lowest part of the cross section with two units (Fig. 4.1.3).

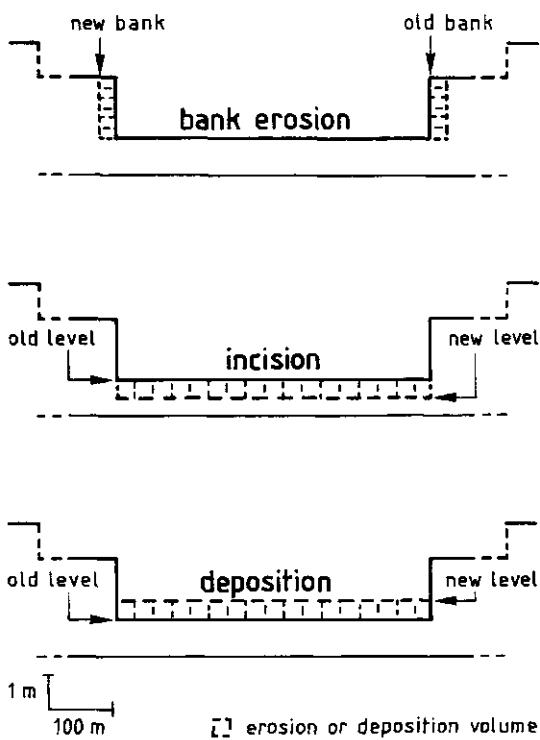


Figure 4.1.3 Model processes and their impact on a cross-section

4.1.5. Results

A simulation yielding illustrative results was selected to demonstrate the simulation procedure.

Input

Although the relationship between fluvial dynamics and climate behaviour depends on the nature of climatic change and the effects of such changes on discharge and sediment load (Lowe & Walker, 1984), a simple relation was assumed between temperature, discharge and sediment load change. A climatic cycle, consisting of a glacial and an interglacial period, was divided by Boll et al. (1988) into four phases, in which each have different discharge and sediment load characteristics. Direct sedimentological and paleoclimatical evidence in many natural terrace systems suggest that in glacial periods, sediment load increases as a result of reduced vegetation cover and hence increased lateral sediment supply to the river. In interglacial periods slope stabilization by vegetation and higher precipitation lead to increasing discharge. This more or less complementary relationship between discharge and sediment load is translated in the model as sinus and cosinus functions, respectively. In order to obtain a more refined climatic curve, the input functions of discharge and input load used are directly based on the widely accepted Milankovic curve (Imbrie & Palmer, 1979), which describes climatic changes in the Quaternary as a result of astronomical parameters. Consequently, discharge, Equation 4, is simulated as the sum of three SIN functions and input load, Equation 5, as the sum of three COS functions, of the earth orbit parameters periods of 23.000, 42.000 and approximately 100.000 years, as found in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ curves by Hays et al. (1976).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{DISCHARGE} = & \text{DAVE} + \text{DAMP} \times (\text{SIN}(2\pi \times \text{TIME}/100) \\ & + \text{SIN}(2\pi \times \text{TIME}/42) + \text{SIN}(2\pi \times \text{TIME}/23)) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{INPUT_LOAD} = & \text{INLAVE} + \text{INLAMP} \times (\text{COS}(2\pi \times \text{TIME}/100) \\ & + \text{COS}(2\pi \times \text{TIME}/42) + \text{COS}(2\pi \times \text{TIME}/23)) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

with:

DISCHARGE	: Discharge	($m^3 s^{-1}$)
DAVE	: Average discharge	($150 m^3 s^{-1}$)
INPUT_LOAD	: Input load	($m^3 s^{-1}$)
INLAVE	: Average input load	($0.005 m^3 s^{-1}$)
DAMP	: Discharge amplitude	($130 m^3 s^{-1}$)
INLAMP	: Input load amplitude	($0.0015 m^3 s^{-1}$)
TIME	: Time	(ky)

The input function of tectonics in this simulation is a constant uplift of 0.1 m each 1000 years.

Output

Each 0.5 million years pictures are made of the landscape (x, y, z, t) data. Three-dimensional pictures are drawn with use of the computer package UNIRAS. The (x, y, t) pictures of Figure 4.1.5 were drawn manually. The (x, y, z) relief diagrams show the development and destruction of river terraces (Fig. 4.1.4). The uplift of the landscape as well as the incision of the valley are visible. The (x, y, t) diagrams indicate the time of deposition of the surface deposits, at the end of the simulation (2.5 million years) there are still deposits which were laid down during the first 0.5 million years (Fig. 4.1.5). Those remnants are only preserved at small high spots. Another visualization of the dynamic properties of the simulated example is shown in Fig. 4.1.6, which portrays the formation, reduction, and destruction of several terraces in one cross-section at $y=18\text{ km}$, during the simulation process. Only some small terrace remnants remain in the cross-section. Besides graphical output, the number of the model states and processes which occur during simulation, is recorded (Tab. 4.1.3)..

The periods during which the model states remain constant, have an average duration of about 7 ky, with a minimum of 1 ky and a maximum of 19 ky. Figure 4.1.7 gives a detailed insight in terrace formation between 1.42 and 1.45 million years, caused by the sequence of model states and processes.

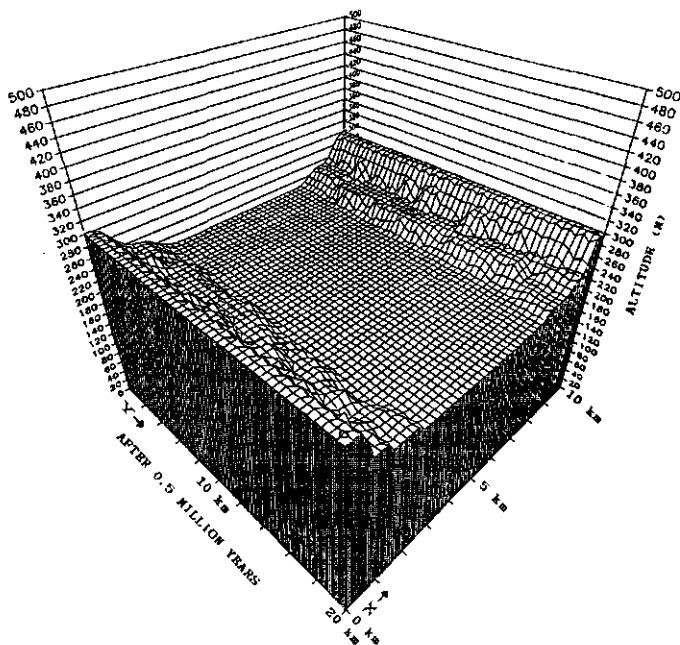
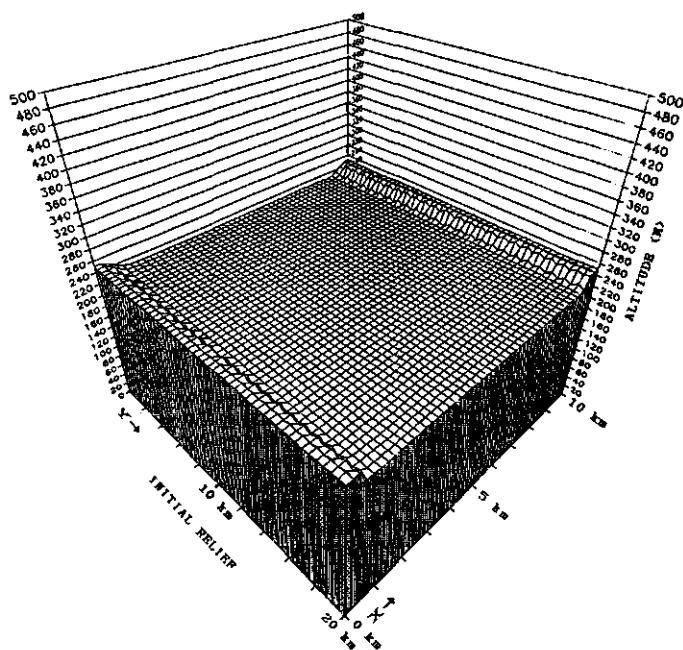
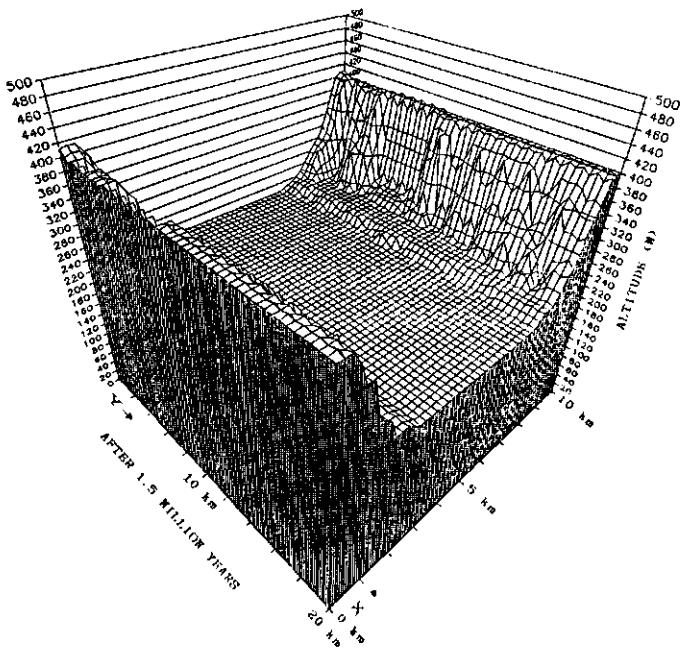
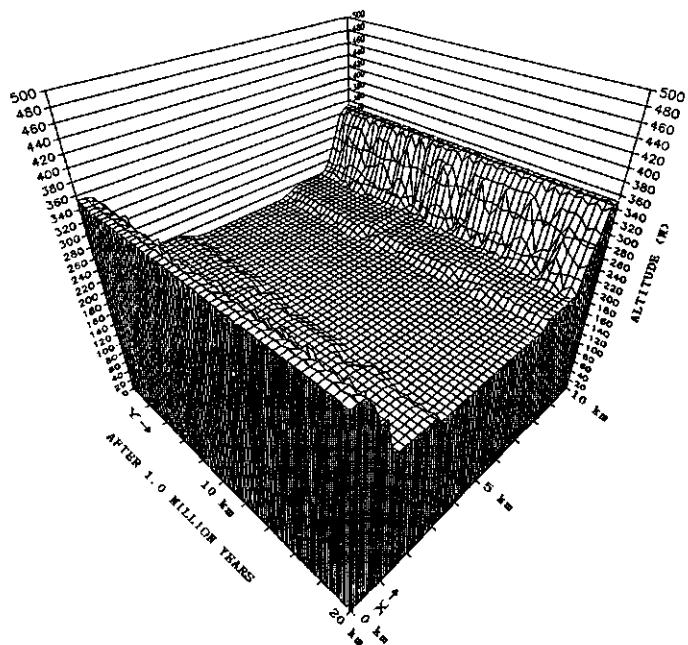
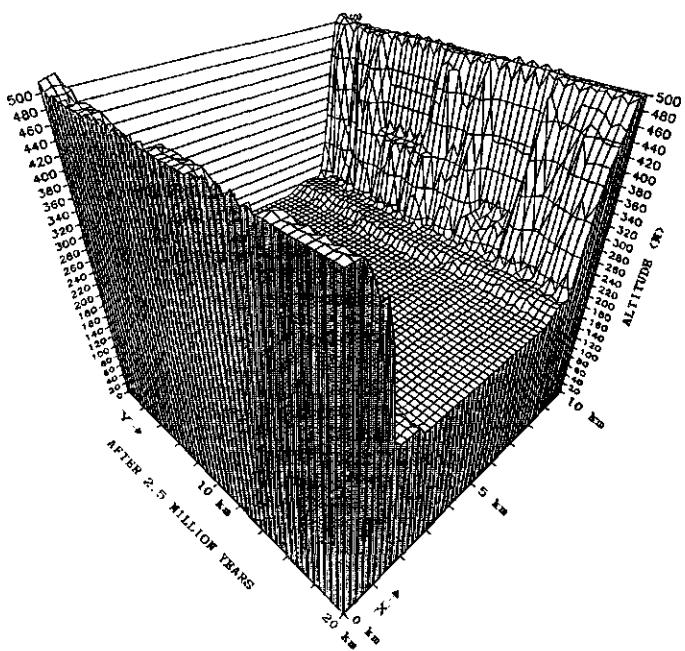
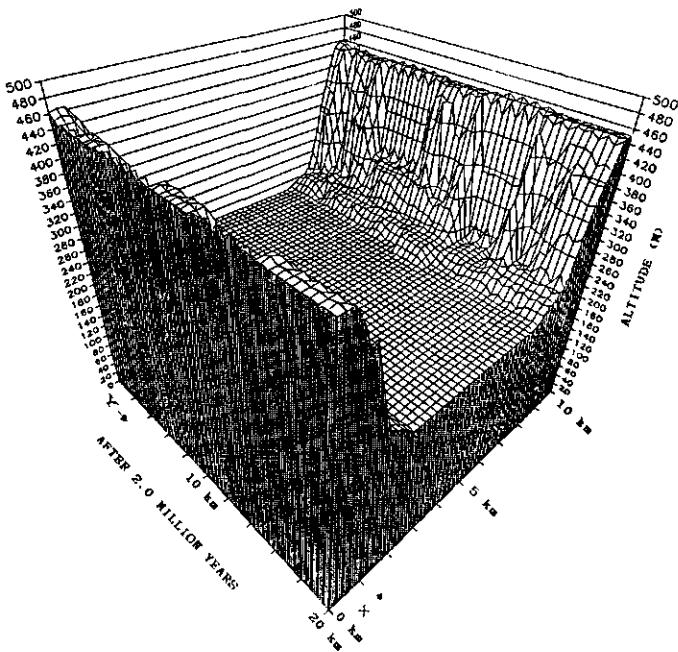


Figure 4.1.4 x,y,z relief pictures of the landscape development each 0.5 million years during the simulation.





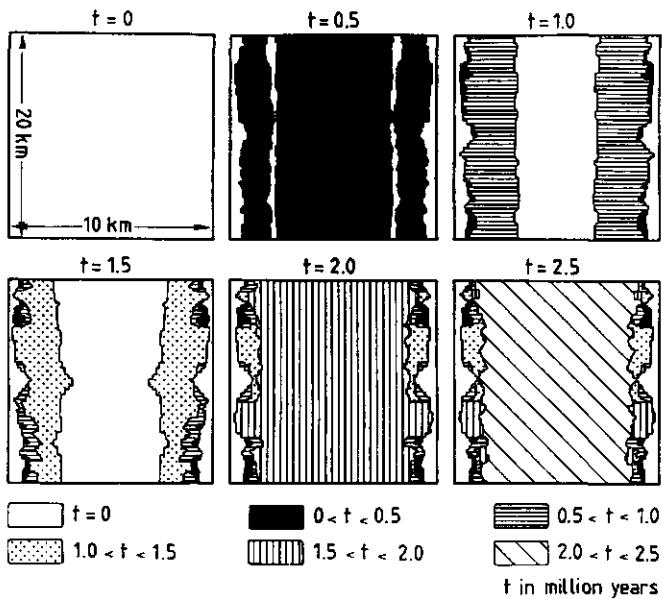


Figure 4.1.5 x,y,t pictures, showing the time of deposition of the surface deposits each 0.5 million years during the simulation.

Uplift	Erosion	Meandering	Incision	Bank-erosion	n_1
1	1	1	1	0	71
1	1	0	1	1	2
0	1	1	1	1	1044
0	1	0	0	1	674
1	0	1	0	0	43
1	0	0	0	0	70
0	0	1	0	0	104
0	0	0	0	0	492
n_2 : 186		1791	1262	1117	1720

1 = true

0 = false

n_1 = Frequency of time steps that a model state occurs (sum is 2500).

n_2 = Frequency of time steps that a state variable or process is true.

Table 4.1.3 Frequencies of the model inputs, states, and outputs.

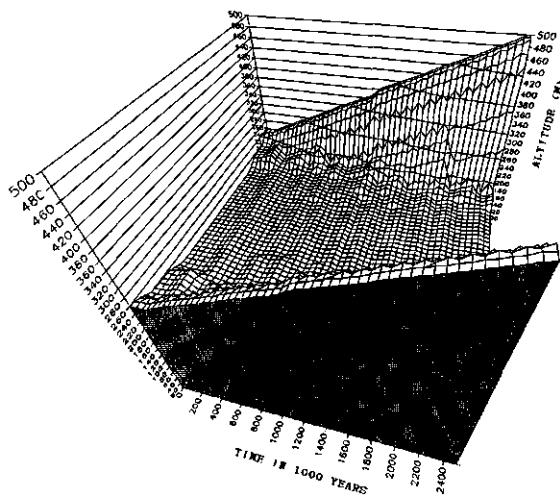


Figure 4.1.6 $x,90,z$ picture, showing the development of one cross-section ($y=90$) during simulation.

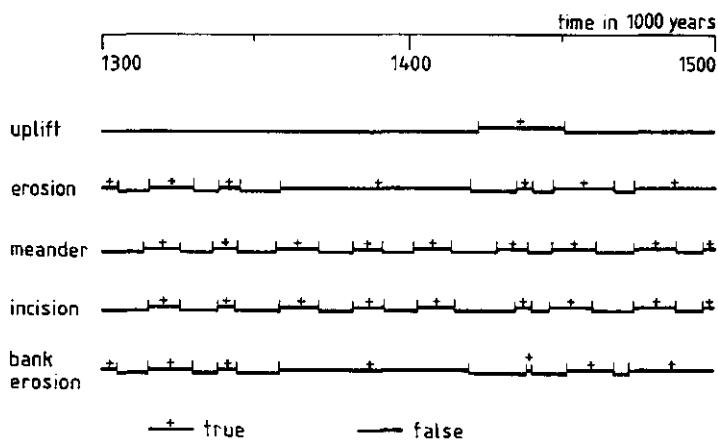


Figure 4.1.7 Model states and processes occurring between 1,3-1,5 million years during simulations.

A period of erosion (incision and bank erosion) is the two channel types interchanges with a period of sedimentation. Due to this sedimentation the fluvial system cannot compensate the uplift by incision, and the [Uplift] state becomes true. When sedimentation has stopped a meandering river immediately starts incising until the uplift is compensated. This incision (without bank erosion) causes a new terrace to develop. During the following time steps the new terrace decreases in width due to bank erosion.

Observing the simulation results it can be concluded that both intrinsic and extrinsic changes of state take place. When inside the system thresholds are crossed without changes in input variables, like uplift, an intrinsic change of state takes place. Whenever the system responds directly to external influences, extrinsic thresholds are crossed (Huggett, 1985; Schumm, 1977). Due to the simple model organization the input strongly determines the output causing the majority of the threshold crossings to be of extrinsic character. By changing model parameters other simulations were carried out. Simulations without uplift or with a constant uplift of more than 0.5 m/ky resulted in terraces which disappeared quickly after their formation.

4.1.6. Discussion and Conclusions

The observed differences in the various simulations have made it possible to formulate some conclusions concerning terrace formation in the described model. Within the simulated fluvial system model, terraces are formed by changes in discharge and sediment load. Commonly terraces are quickly eroded. At some specific input values, however, such as a constant uplift rate of 0.1 m/ky, some terrace remnants are preserved from being eroded. Both extrinsic and intrinsic changes of state can bring about terrace formation in the model. Although this model has not and cannot be validated, it produces plausible (x,y,z) and (x,y,t) plots in the light of existing geomorphological theories.

The described model and simulation show that it is possible to simulate river terrace formation and to graphically display

the results with use of both quantitative and qualitative information. The decision rules which are the result of finite state modelling, allowing the incorporation of qualitative relations. They act as thresholds and strongly determine the model output. This indicates that further model improvements could be found in extension of the used decision rules or refinements in states and state transitions. When the presented model is applied to a real system it can be used to formulate and analyze hypotheses of fluvial terrace formation. The methodology used is also applicable on many other geomorphic subjects, especially when not all information is or can be quantified.

4.2 A 3-D MODEL OF FLUVIAL TERRACE DEVELOPMENT IN THE ALLIER BASIN.

A. Veldkamp

Abstract

The combined effects of climate and tectonism on general terrace stratigraphy and valley asymmetry during the last half million years in the Allier system (France) are simulated by a 3-D conceptual model (LIMTER). This model allows the formulation and evaluation of long term terrace formation scenarios for the Allier system. Simulation results suggest that terrace stratigraphy in the study area is mainly the result of the internal Allier dynamics and climatic change. Local tectonism caused the development of unpaired terraces while the general regional uplift played a dominant role in terrace formation and preservation in general.

4.2.1. Introduction

River terraces are a fundamental part of fluvial landscapes. The existence and formation of terraces has been subject of research for many years because they provide a relative chronology to which other geological, geomorphological or palaeohydrological events can be related (Dawson & Gardiner, 1987). It has always been tempting to link Quaternary terrace chronologies with established chronologies of major Quaternary environmental changes, such as climatic and sea level oscillations, especially when other dating evidence is not available.

A first and well known generalization about the response of fluvial systems in semiarid to subhumid regions to slight shifts in climate was set forth by Huntington (1907, p. 358) and is called "Huntington's principle" (Fairbridge, 1968, p.1125; Bloom, 1978, p. 248). Huntington's principle, was established as a general model which many followed in constructing terrace chronologies, whereby glacials are thought to be characterized by aggrading braided rivers and the interglacials by incising meandering rivers. This generalization is now recognized as being exceedingly simplistic.

The other major generalization of a driving force behind terrace formation which is or was often applied concerns changes in base level. Such base level changes may be due to sea level

changes or epirogenetic movements. In Britain base level changes received much attention and the relative changes in sea-level were seen as a major external driving force for river-level changes (Green & McGregor, 1987). In continental Europe a climatic school dominated which applied base level changes due to tectonism as second important external variable (Brunnacker & Boenink, 1983; Buch, 1987; Texier & Raynal, 1984). However, a perfect association of terrace depositional phases and incision episodes with climatic phases of certain base-levels is rarely possible, or even likely. Terraces are in fact very complex features, resulting partly from external factors and partly from the nature of response in the fluvial system itself. Rivers may make terraces without there necessarily being an external change (Schumm, 1977). Often the external model breaks down on a lack of detailed understanding of the processes operating within the fluvial system.

Stratigraphy offers a direct way to gain more insight in the internal dynamics of a fluvial system. The sediment properties, deposition conditions and their sequence can give detailed insight in former conditions within the fluvial system studied. Breaks or facies transitions within the sedimentary record often mark major environmental changes, indicating possible external forces controlling fluvial dynamics and terrace formation.

In general it has long been recognized that alluvial sedimentary successions are composed of two main facies groups. One group comprises sandstones and conglomerates the other group consists of, mudstones and siltstones (Bridge & Leeder, 1979). A similar alluvial sediment discrimination was made in fluvial terrace sediments by Texier & Raynal (1984) who correlate coarse sediments to glacial environments and fine sediments to interglacial environments. They belong to the climatic school as they linked the reviewed terraces with the major Quaternary climatic cycles.

A simulation of alluvial stratigraphy within one floodplain

under strict assumptions (Bridge & Leeder, 1979) showed that the internal dynamics can strongly determine the stratigraphical record. Tectonic movements had only a significant influence on the simulated successions if a preferred direction of tilting maintained. From this simulation and the correlations of Texier & Raynal (1984) it becomes obvious that if one wants to create a more realistic model of fluvial terrace formation the stratigraphical record has to be incorporated.

More effects of changes in fluvial dynamics can be viewed, when considering both geographical position of terraces and their stratigraphical record. The role of tectonism seemed only minor in the stratigraphical model of Bridge & Leeder (1979) but when similar movements are considered in a model including terrace formation more distinct results can be expected. Tectonic uplift is likely to cause vertical erosion of a river and thus abandoning of the floodplain, an effect not incorporated in their stratigraphical model.

In respect to tectonism river terraces are more valuable than stratigraphy because they give direct indications of former river gradients, and successive terraces show successive river positions. In areas of tectonic activity, valleys and their terraces may be asymmetrical, tilted or warped in various ways, giving valuable clues for interpretation of tectonic movements.

Models which describe fluvial system dynamics for longer time spans are sparse because most knowledge on fluvial systems is mostly based on short term, well controlled experiments (Gregory, 1983; Dawson & Gardiner, 1987). They are therefore usually based on the correlation of terraces with known major changes during the Quaternary. Most of these models are used for the interpretation of large terrace sequences.

Recently a quantitative but still conceptual, long term (2000 ky) macro scale (100 km^2) fluvial system model was constructed which simulates the development of fluvial terraces as the result of external and internal changes in the simulated fluvial system (Veldkamp & Vermeulen, 1989). This so-called coarse scale model

(Thornes, 1987) did not consider the effects on the fluvial stratigraphical record.

In this paper the combined effects of climatic change, tectonism and internal fluvial dynamics on alluvial stratigraphy and valley morphology are simulated using a comprehensive version of the existing 3-D fluvial terrace formation simulation model. As an exercise a plausible terrace development scenario is simulated for the Randan section in the Allier valley with the 3-D LIMTER (LIMagne TERRaces) model. The program listing can be found as appendix II in this thesis.

4.2.2. Model characteristics

Model construction, organization and operation are described in a previous paper (Veldkamp & Vermeulen, 1989). Model organization was done with entities and attributes. An entity is an independent unit in the object system, the entities in this model are LANDSCAPE and RIVER. An attribute is a property, mark or characteristic of an entity, such as discharge for RIVER and Valley_depth for LANDSCAPE. Attributes have been constrained to lie in realistic domains for the Allier system. The LIMTER entities and their attributes are described in Table 1. Interaction between the two entities are defined as erosion and sedimentation processes acting in timesteps of 1000 years.

These model processes are long term and large scale analogies of real erosion and sedimentation processes. They are artificially constructed processes reacting to changes in the 1000 years discharge/sediment load equilibrium which are defined as a function of climate. When the sediment input load exceeds the sediment transport capacity the difference is deposited (DEPOSITION = true), and in case the transport capacity exceeds the input load the difference is eroded in the simulated system (EROSION = true).

The quantity to erode or deposit in LIMTER is calculated from a sediment budget, but which processes act in the LANDSCAPE is determined by decision rules extracted from general literature on hydrology (Schumm, 1977).

A. Time	:1 < Time <800 (Ky)
B. Entities	
1. Entity: RIVER	
Attributes	Domain
1.1 Discharge	: $1.58 \times 10^{12} < \text{Discharge} < 9.47 \times 10^{12}$ ($\text{m}^3 \text{ky}^{-1}$)
1.2 Input_load	: $0 < \text{Input_load} < 9.46 \times 10^7$ ($\text{m}^3 \text{ky}^{-1}$)
1.3 Form	: meandering or braided
1.3.1 Width	: $0.15 < \text{Flood_plain_width} < 14.4$ (km)
1.3.2 Maxload	: $2.22 \times 10^6 < \text{Maxload} < 1.10 \times 10^8$ ($\text{m}^3 \text{ky}^{-1}$)
1.4 Erosion	: $-6.62 \times 10^7 < \text{Erosion} < 1.10 \times 10^8$ ($\text{m}^3 \text{ky}^{-1}$)
2. Entity: LANDSCAPE	
Attributes	Domain
2.1 Uplift	: $0 < \text{Uplift} < 0.4$ (m/ky)
2.2 Uplift Unequal	: $0 < \text{Uplift}_\text{unequal} < 0.05$ (m/ky)
2.3 Relief x,y,z	: $150 < x < 15000$ (m) $150 < y < 15000$ (m) $1 < z < 500$ (m)
2.3.1 Valley_depth	: $20 < \text{Valley_depth} < 500$ (m)
2.3.2 Stratigraphy	: $0 < \text{stratigraphy} < 1000$ (ky)
2.3.3 sediment_composition	: $1 < \text{sediment_composition} \leq 4$ (-)
2.4 Valley_width	: $0.15 < \text{Valley_width} < 14.30$ (km)

Table 4.2.1 Model organization

These decision rules are:

IF EROSION AND UPLIFT AND MEANDER	THEN INCISION
IF EROSION AND UPLIFT AND BRAIDED	THEN INCISION AND BANK_EROSION
IF EROSION AND NOT UPLIFT AND MEANDER	THEN INCISION AND BANK_EROSION
IF EROSION AND NOT UPLIFT AND BRAIDED	THEN BANK_EROSION
IF NOT EROSION	THEN DEPOSITION (disregarding all other conditions)

Whereby UPLIFT and NOT UPLIFT are system states indicating the impact of tectonic uplift. UPLIFT is true (NOT UPLIFT = false)

when the fluvial erosion is not able to compensate the LANDSCAPE uplift. MEANDER is true when the Allier is meandering while the BRAIDED state is true when the Allier is braiding. The impact of INCISION, BANK_EROSION AND DEPOSITION in a cross-section are shown in Fig. 4.1.3. Erosion processes are headward migrating along the longitudinal profile, while sedimentation migrates in downward direction. Irregular headward erosion during erosion of a meandering RIVER is caused by changes in the effective floodplain width during the simulation. The resulting irregular bank erosion causes a similar effect as a meandering river does.

During a simulation the volume to erode or deposit by the RIVER in the LANDSCAPE is calculated for each time step of 1 ky. These calculations are followed by state determinations and boundary calculations within which LANDSCAPE changes must take place. The LANDSCAPE is changed by modifying grid cells elevations in response to the acting process. The changed LANDSCAPE is stored in a geographical information system (GIS).

Terrace stratigraphy

Terrace stratigraphy was also incorporated within LIMTER. During the simulations the stratigraphy (sediment age and composition class) of the upper ten metres (grid cells) are stored. The sediment composition classes are derived from bulk geochemical sediment research of the Allier terraces. There are four sediment composition classes with the following characteristics:

- Class 0, is the underlying bedrock;
- Class 1, are sandy and clayey sediments with a low volcanic content which are deposited during interglacial periods in a meandering system;
- Class 2, are predominantly sandy sediments with an intermediate volcanic content which are deposited in a braided system, during glacial periods;
- Class 3 are gravelly sediments with a high volcanic content, which are deposited in a braided system at the end of

a prolonged glacial (> 10 ky).

4.2.3. Model Input

The inputs and outputs of the Allier system simulations are described after which simulation results are presented and discussed.

Climate

The Quaternary has known many astronomically controlled mondial changes in climate, which can be very satisfactory described by Milankovics curve (Berger, 1978). These climatic changes are directly registered in deep sea cores, ice cores and löss profiles giving indications of the relative amounts of water stored in ice masses, and changes in mondial circulations. Although the relationship between fluvial dynamics and climate behaviour depends on the nature of climatic change and the effects of such changes on discharge and sediment load (Lowe & Walker, 1984), a simple linear relation was assumed between caloric insolation (Berger, 1978), mean discharge and sediment load each 1000 years. During Glacials much water is stored in glaciers and drier continental climates prevail causing lower mean 1000 years discharges in rivers. Due to the drier and colder glacial environment the vegetation cover decreases causing an increase in sediment supply to fluvial systems. Interglacials yield the opposite picture, an increase in the mean 1000 years discharge and a complementary decrease in the 1000 years sediment supply. This simplified relationship between mean discharge and mean sediment load is partly supported by the changes in magnetic susceptibility as found in the long löss sections in China, indicating dry glacials and wet interglacials during the last 2.4 million years in this continental area (Heller & Wang, 1991). A similar condition can be expected in the Allier basin where the glaciers caused a permanent high pressure area during the glacials.

As model simulations require a climatic input with a constant reliability during the simulated time span a simplified

Milankovics curve was used as basic climatic input. Mean discharge each 1000 years is simulated as the sum of three SIN functions with the periodicities of the precession (23,000 years), obliquity (41,000 years) and eccentricity (96,000 years). As the sediment load is assumed to have a similar behaviour complementary to the 1000 years discharge it was simulated as the sum of the COS functions of the same three periodicities. Although these curves do not exactly match the climatic curves derived from deep sea cores and löss sediments, they sufficiently describe climatic changes during the Quaternary for our conceptual long term modelling purposes. The general assumption that there exists a simple straight forward relationship between Milankovics curve and both the 1000 years discharge and sediment load curves is of course a too strong oversimplification to have any realistic validity. It is obvious that a refinement of this assumption would improve the general validity of the model.

Except the difference in behaviour of the fluvial dynamics in a glacial and interglacial stadia the transition from a glacial to an interglacial environment was also taken into account. Bulk geochemical research showed also that changes in sediment flux magnitude and sediment composition are related to the intensity and duration of a climatic episode (Veldkamp, 1991). During prolonged glacials, large glaciers were built up on the higher parts in the Allier basin, the Cantal and the Mont Dore volcanoes (Veyret, 1978). When climatic conditions improved relative fast glacier melting caused the release of large quantities of coarse volcanic rich sediments into the Allier. During the Late Quaternary this extra sediment flux ranged from 2 to almost 50 times the Interglacial flux quantities.

The fluvioglacial sediment fluxes are incorporated within LIMTER as follows: when a glacial lasts longer than 10 ky an extra large ($4 \times$ normal flux) sediment flux with composition class 3, is released into the system at the transition to a new interglacial period. The flux magnitude of 4 is based on model tuning. The resulting alternating erosion and deposition states during the simulation are clearly illustrated by the cumulative erosion graph (Fig. 4.2.1).

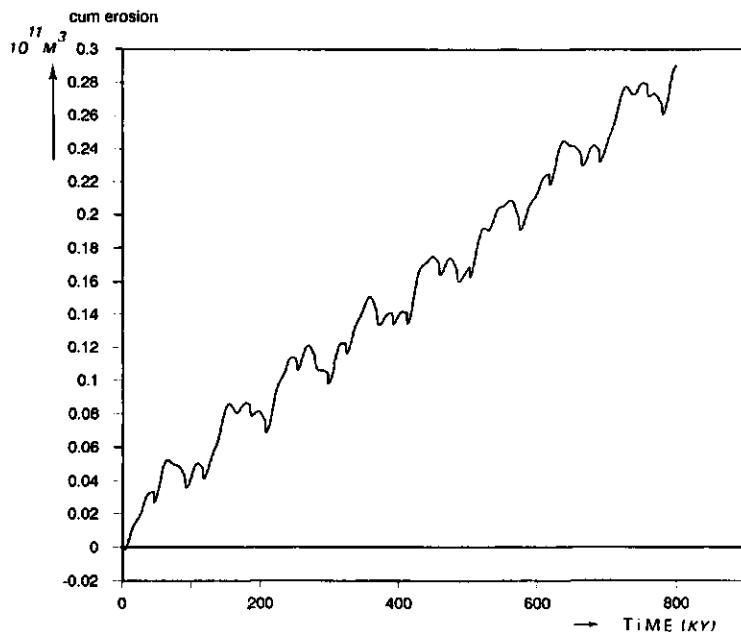


Figure 4.2.1 Cumulative erosion curve, derived from changes in discharge/sediment load equilibrium during simulation of LIMTER. This curve illustrates the alternating erosion and sedimentation stages during simulations.

Tectonism

Two different components of tectonism (Fig. 4.2.2) are incorporated in LIMTER. A component of gradual uplift of the whole simulated landscape (QUPLIFT), and an uplift component describing the difference in uplift rate of the landscapes on both sides of the Allier (QUPLIFT_UNEQUAL). The latter tectonic component assumes an active fault in the middle of the Allier valley, dividing the entity LANDSCAPE in two parts with different uplift rates. There is some field evidence which suggests the presence of such a faulting zone.

Because there is no proof that tectonism has known changing rates in the Allier basin in time, only simulations with constant gradual uplift are made. A simulation with a QUPLIFT of 0.1 m/ky and a QUPLIFT_UNEQUAL of 0.01m/ky will be shown.

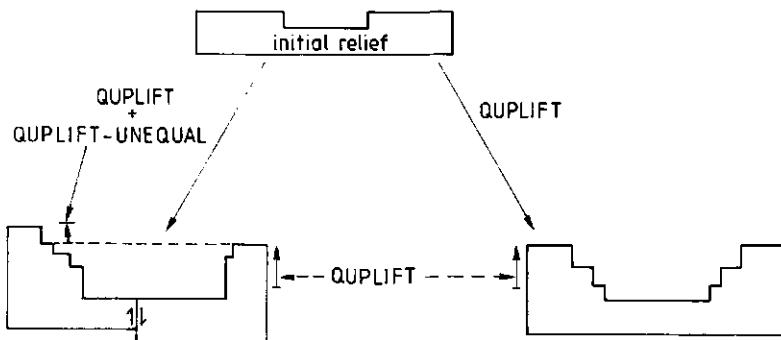


Figure 4.2.2 Two tectonic components as input of the LIMTER simulation. Uplift is the general uplift of the modelled area, Uplift-unequal is the difference in uplift rate between the two valley sides, assuming an active fault in the middle of the valley parallel to the flow direction.

Initial relief

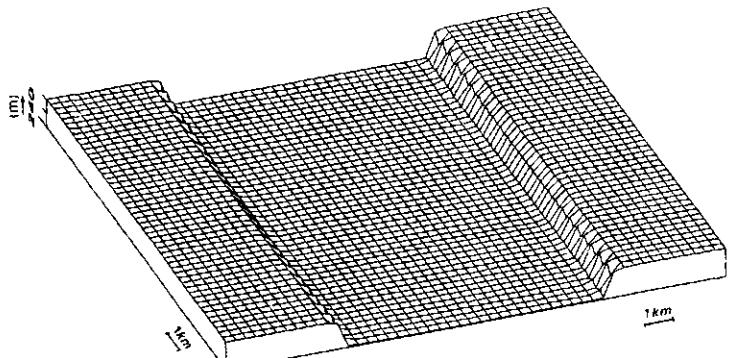
The initial relief (Fig. 4.2.3.a) is also a model input. The simulated LANDSCAPE has a surface of 225 km² (15 x 15 km), a maximum altitude of 270 m and a minimum altitude of 240 m. The initial relief consists of a broad (valley_width is 7800 m), shallow (valley_depth is 30 m) valley. Terrace stratigraphy displays only age 0 and composition class 0 indicating that no fluvial sediments occur in the initial LANDSCAPE.

4.2.4. Model Output

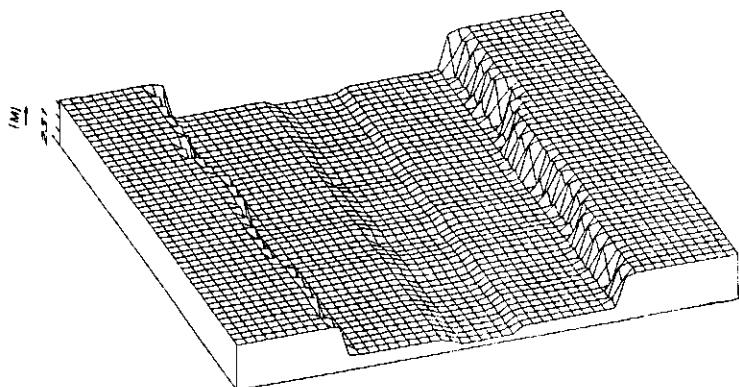
The output of LIMTER is a raster GIS file with the LANDSCAPE altitudes and stratigraphy for each timestep. With these data, cross sections, maps, 3-D relief graphs, or 3-D graphs of one cross section development in time can be drawn.

4.2.5. Simulation results

A simulation with plausible realistic simulation results is presented in more detail. This simulation had the climatic and tectonic inputs as described by the model input. The LANDSCAPE development in time during this simulation is illustrated three-dimensionally in Fig. 4.2.3 for each 100 ky.

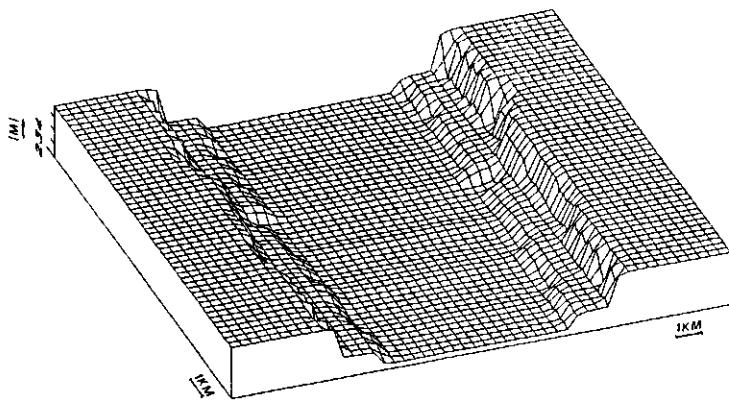


initial relief

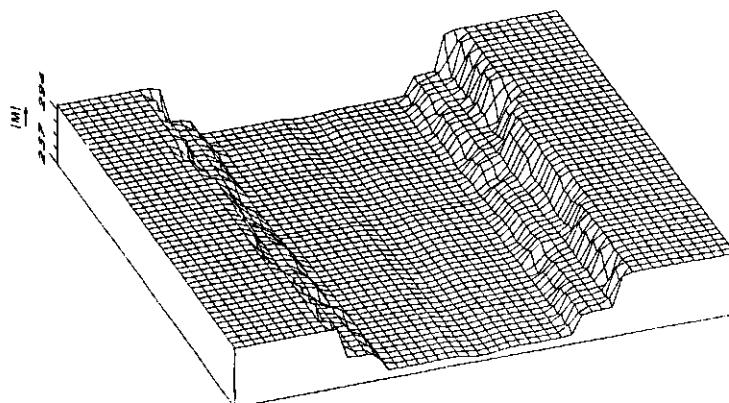


relief version D2 after 100 timesteps

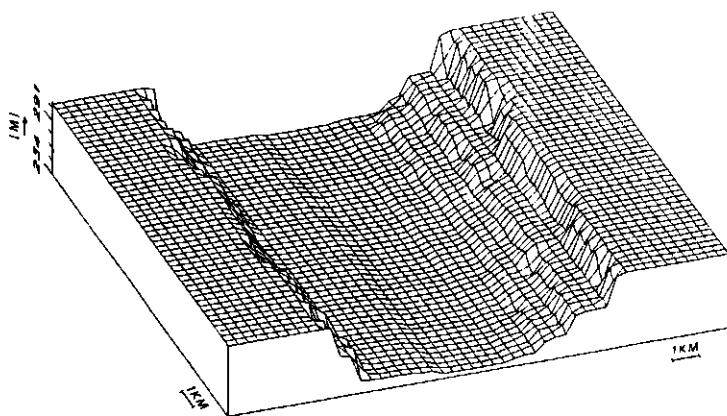
Figure 4.2.3 3-D valley relief development during simulation, in timesteps of 100 ky. The effects of changing fluvial dynamics are illustrated by incision and terrace formation. Irregularities in the valley slopes are also caused by changes in fluvial dynamics during the headward erosion.



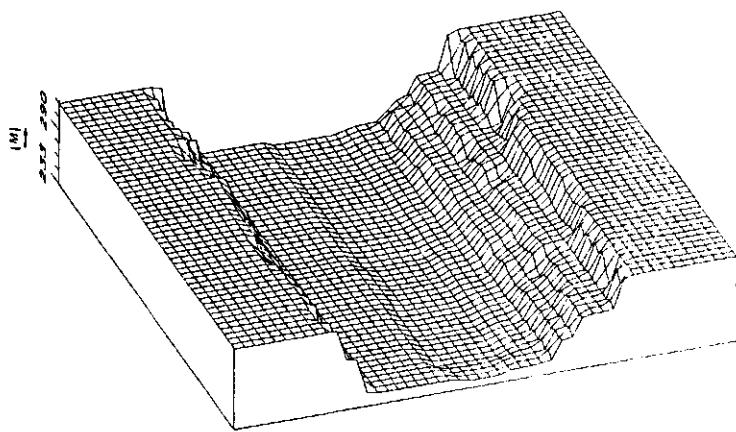
relief version D2 after 200 timesteps



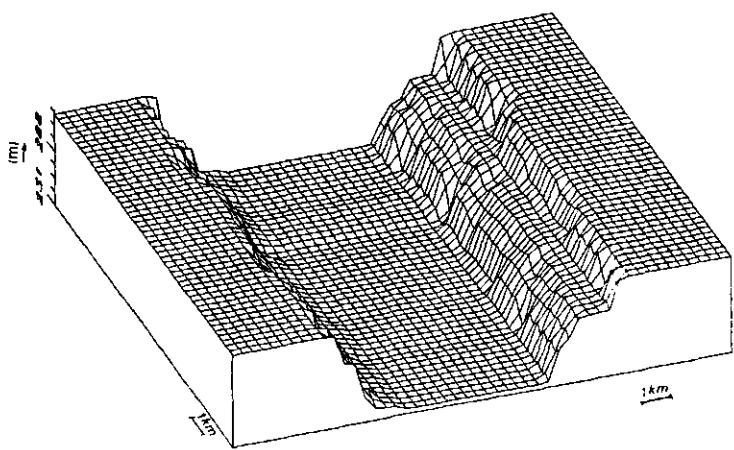
relief version D2 after 300 timesteps



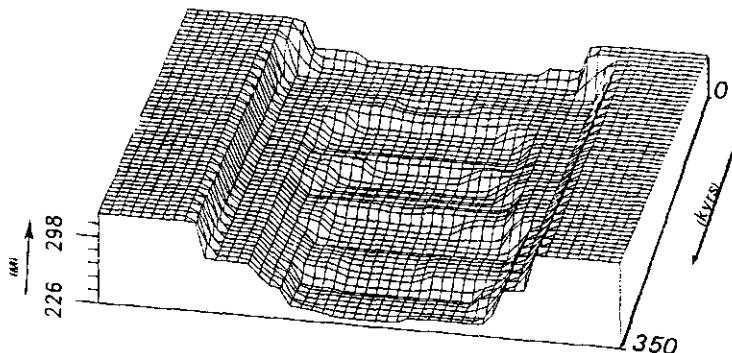
relief version D2 after 400 timesteps



Relief version D2 after 500 timesteps



relief version D2 after 600 timesteps



cross section in time version d2

Figure 4.2.4 3-D graph of the development of one cross section in time. An asymmetrical terrace sequence develops as a result of distorted downgrading of the Allier system.

Valley morphology

Simulations without tectonic uplift result in temporary terraces only, while large constant uplift rates (>0.3 m/ky) cause steep canyons without terraces, while uplift rates around 0.1 m/ky display many terraces. Simulations with gradual uplift of the LANDSCAPE as a whole result in paired terraces only. When a difference in uplift rate for both halves of the LANDSCAPE is introduced (QUPLIFT_UNEQUAL > 0), asymmetrical terrace sequences develop with both paired and unpaired terraces. Most terraces remain on the valley side with the highest uplift rate. Simulations with both general and unequal uplift components result in landscapes with comparable characteristics as the present Randan terrace sequence. To illustrate the incision and sedimentation dynamics in more detail a cross-section sequence in time is drawn in Fig. 4.2.4, showing relief changes during the first 350 ky of the simulation. Both figures clearly show the alternating incision and sedimentation of the Allier in time causing several different terrace levels. The effects of unequal uplift also become prominent during the simulation. An asymmetrical terrace sequence develops as a result of distorted downgrading of the Allier system.

During the simulations unpaired terraces develop only due to changes in unequal uplift. This result contrasts with the traditional view that unpaired terraces are generated by changes in internal factors such as a widely swinging meander belt which produces unpaired terraces during the slow lowering of a broad floodplain.

Terrace stratigraphy

Terrace stratigraphy displays the total effect of both sedimentation and erosion processes related to the sediment fluxes dynamics during simulation. Simulations without major changes in sediment flux due to climatic change resulted in thin sediment layers with a very simple stratigraphy. When the sediment composition and flux magnitude are related to climatic environment a very complex terrace stratigraphy develops.

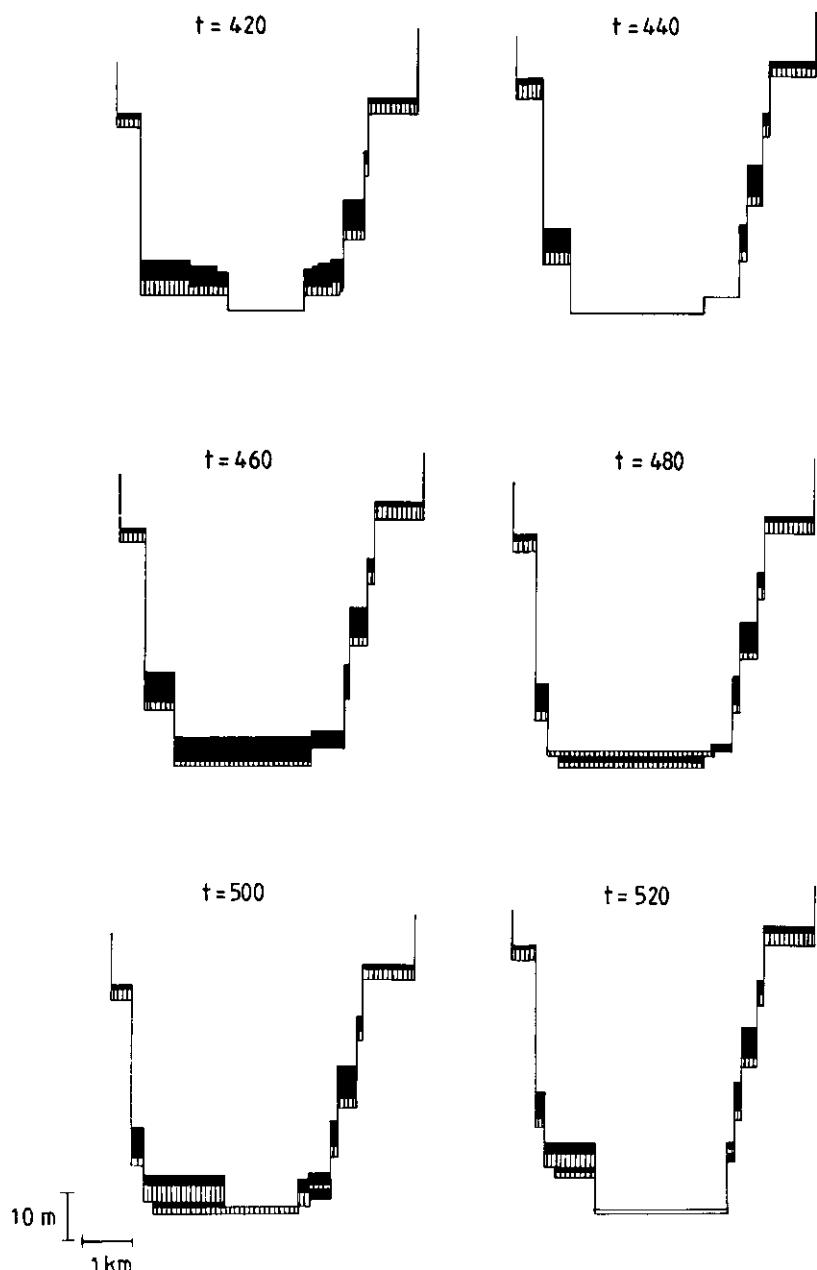


Figure 4.2.5 A cross-section and terrace stratigraphy development during the last 100 ky of the simulation shown each 20 ky.

It is not surprising that the largest sediment fluxes (Class 3), i.e. those related to glacier melting, are relatively well preserved in the terrace stratigraphy. During these large fluvioglacial sediment fluxes the floodplain and the lowest terraces are buried by these sediments. This burial causes the formation of the 'standard' Allier terrace stratigraphy with relatively volcanic poor sandy units buried by volcanic rich gravelly units. This development can be seen in the cross-sections in Fig. 4.2.5., displaying the changes in both relief and stratigraphy (sediment age and composition). Six cross-sections illustrate the fluvial system dynamics during the last simulated 100 ky. The last cross-section shows the LANDSCAPE during an interglacial period like the present Allier and can directly be compared with the actual Randan cross-section.

Although the river has exhibited a meandering state many times, it is surprising that the typical interglacial sediments (Class 1) are rarely found in the stratigraphical record. This limited occurrence of meandering sediments is true for both the described simulation and the actual Randan terrace sequence. During LIMTER simulations interglacial sediments are deposited during each interglacial but they are almost always eroded during the same interglacial or the subsequent glacial. The limited occurrence of interglacial sediments in the sedimentary records seems to be due to the mainly eroding characteristics of a meandering Allier, the most common interglacial Allier state.

4.2.6. Evaluation of the simulated Randan terrace sequence

In Fig. 4.2.6. the cross-section after 520 timesteps (ky) is plotted together with the cross-section near Randan, allowing comparison of the LIMTER simulation results with the actual Allier system at Randan. It has to be realized that the Randan cross section in Fig. 4.2.6. is only a strong schematization of reality. The effects of mass movements on slopes and the dissection of terraces by minor tributaries are not included in the schematic cross-section. Because LIMTER has only conceptual value the correspondence between the model and the Randan

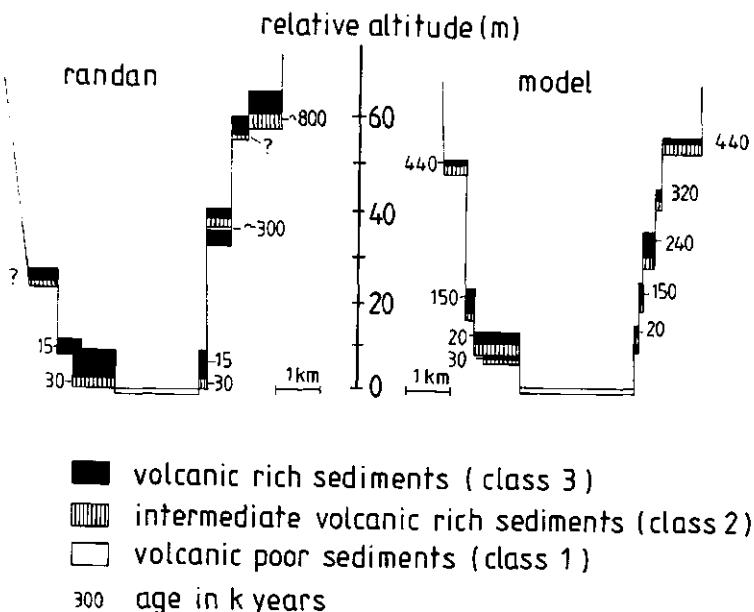


Figure 4.2.6 Comparison of the Randan terrace sequence and the model output. Note the good correspondence between the younger terraces for model and reality.

sequence should be reviewed qualitatively only. This implies that the rates for discharge, sediment load and uplift, have no validity outside the model, but they might give some indication of the order of magnitude these variables might have had in the Allier system.

The major points of correspondence between LIMTER output and the Randan sequence are the number of terraces, the general terrace stratigraphy, and the relative altitudes and distribution of the terraces on the valley slopes. Also clear differences exist between the model and reality. In LIMTER a relative age of 420 ky is found for the 65 m terrace (Va) while in reality this terrace level is thought to have an age of approximately 800 ky. This large age difference suggests that the incision rate in LIMTER was probably too fast compared with what actually took place in the Allier system. When the LIMTER is run for 800 ky a much deeper and steeper valley exists as the actual Randan sequence. On the other hand, the age difference between the younger terraces in the model and in the Allier is much smaller, suggesting a much better simulation of the Allier system during

the last few hundred thousands of years. This change in age correspondence between simulation results and reality suggests that the uplift rates near Randan changed during the Quaternary. Probably an almost stand still in uplift took place between 800 and 400 kyears BP. This interpretation implies that the model assumption of constant uplift rates is incorrect for the Randan terrace sequence. A change in tectonic activity is supported by some distorted longitudinal terrace profiles indicating regional tectonic activity between the formation of the V and W terrace levels (Larue, 1979; Giot et al., 1978).

Another striking difference between simulation results and reality is the complete lack of terrace remnants of the Va and Vb terraces on the eastern valley side in the Randan sequence. This discrepancy is difficult to interpret but it might also be related to the same tectonic events which caused the differences in terrace sediment age.

In general it is striking that relative simple model inputs can accomplish a complicated terrace sequence, including unpaired terrace levels and a relative complicated terrace stratigraphy. Despite the differences between LIMTER output and the Allier terrace sequence the simulation is thought to display a possible general scenario for the development of the actual Randan terrace sequence.

General applications of LIMTER

LIMTER has of course no validity outside the Allier basin because it was adapted to this unique system only. The impact of climate was simulated relatively straight forward by changes in the 1000 years sediment and discharge because the Allier system is strongly controlled by fluvio-glacial fluxes from glaciers in its headwaters (Veldkamp, 1991). It remains therefore to be seen whether this input assumption has any validity in a system without such a fluvio-glacial control during the Quaternary.

The hydraulically-based clastic sedimentation model of Tetzlaff and Harbaugh (1989) seems to allow a more straight forward interpretation of simulation results than LIMTER. LIMTER

calculates only an average impact each time step (1000 years) while they coped with longer timespans by the 'compute-and-drift' and the 'compute-and-stop' strategies. Although Tetzlaff & Harbaugh's basic assumptions seem realistic their complete numerical model has so many calculation operations that no reliable results can be expected. During each operation the calculation errors increase resulting in unreliable outputs. LIMTER has less realistic basic assumptions but has much less calculation operations reducing the calculation errors and limiting the computing power demands. It is obvious that both approaches have different advantages and disadvantages and are more or less complementary.

It is beyond any doubt that an elaborated model with a solid hydraulically-based foundation such as constructed by Tetzlaff & Harbaugh (1989), suggests a more general validity. But their numeric model is mainly focussed on quantified transport and deposition processes neglecting other complex dynamics in the fluvial system. The remaining problem is that such a model should be tuned to both sedimentary sequences as valley morphology (river terraces). The latter is the main goal of LIMTER while long term hydraulically based models can only be tuned to sedimentary sequences. Another problem is to obtain a reliable long term input for such a hydrological model, because our oversimplified input assumption is unsuitable for such a model.

4.2.7. Conclusions

The long term simulations of an Allier like system with LIMTER suggest that the Allier terraces at Randan are mainly the result of the internal dynamics responding to both climatic and tectonic factors. The conceptual model (LIMTER) illustrates that in the Allier system tectonism may have played a dominant role in determining the terrace formation and preservation, while climatic dynamics seem to have strongly determined terrace stratigraphy by causing changes in composition and magnitude of sediment fluxes.

The simulated valley morphology is the result of the interaction of tectonic movements and fluvial dynamics. Unequal

uplift results in unpaired terraces and asymmetrical downgrading of the simulated river.

SYNTHESIS

The main aim of this research was to establish a quantitative large scale reconstruction of the longterm Allier dynamics as a result of global environmental changes. Therefore a model was made simulating these long term dynamics. Model dynamics were based on the most commonly applied concept in fluvial palaeohydrology, the concept of dynamic equilibrium as postulated by Schumm (1977). Within a complex natural system such as a fluvial system a single event is thought to be able to trigger a complex morphological and/or sedimentological response as the various components of the system react to the change. Within a fluvial system in dynamic equilibrium, terrace formation may be concentrated into relatively short time periods of dynamic equilibrium associated with interglacial, interstadial or glacial conditions (Green & McGregor, 1987).

A key problem which has to be solved is to determine under which conditions thresholds are reached in a fluvial system. In the Allier system we found a rather straight forward relationship whereby the Allier can be envisaged as oscillating between a cold-climate braided, terrace building condition during and at the end of a glacial and a more meandering, incision condition during the interglacials. The Allier threshold between deposition and incision is found at the transition from glacial to interglacial.

For NW Europe most investigators agree on a general cold deposition of most terrace sediments but their interpretation of the exact system dynamics involved in creating such deposits differ strongly (Starkel, 1983; Gibbard, 1988). Part of the Meuse (M.W. van den Berg, pers. comm.) and Thames basins (Dawson and Gardiner, 1987) are thought to have similar dynamics as found for the Allier. Starkel (1983) reports that the main phases of erosion in the Vistula and other European rivers were in late glacial and early interglacial times in as well meandering as braided systems. This insight is not shared by Gibbard (1988) who states that incision occurs when river run off is highly seasonal but when limited supplies of detritus are available, i.e.,

predominantly under cold climates.

A very plausible general statement, which we support, is made by Green and McGregor (1987) who state that different river systems react differently to similar environmental changes. They give two main reasons for such differences: the size of the river and the position of its basin in relation to the geographical pattern of the environmental variables that govern the behaviour of fluvial processes. According to them the differences between basins of similar order are caused by the fact that the amount of environmental change needed to bring a fluvial system to and across a critical geomorphological threshold for terrace formation is not the same in all environments.

By applying the concept of dynamic equilibrium a large scale model LIMTER was made simulating Quaternary Allier dynamics. Starkel (1983), Green & McGregor (1987) and Bull (1990) envisage at each phase a leading factor which pushes the whole system towards down cutting or aggradation leading to a new equilibrium between mean discharge and mean sediment load. A similar behaviour is found for LIMTER. A change in 1000 years discharge, 1000 years sediment load or uplift rate will usually trigger a system response of erosion or deposition.

LIMTER simulations show that terrace formation takes place in a model in dynamic equilibrium thus confirming the general validity of the Schumm's concept of dynamic equilibrium. LIMTER also demonstrates that both climate and tectonism play a significant role in terrace formation. But the main conclusion is that it is well possible to model such a complex and large scale system.

Methodology

The following methodologies were applied in this thesis: 1) bulk geochemical characterization of terrace sediments, 2) sediment flux reconstruction, and 3) finite state modelling. Although none of these tools is essentially new, the novelty is the way they were applied and combined in this research.

1 Bulk sand geochemistry

This research tool facilitates the discrimination and quantification of the impact of different factors and processes on terrace sand composition. The effects of provenance, weathering, grain size and fluvial transport could be satisfactorily discerned and statistically modelled. Within the Allier and Dore sands, the role of grain size distribution was very limited due to the large amounts of rock-fragments in both sediment types. In sands with mainly mineral grains like in The Netherlands (Moura & Kroonenberg, 1990), grain size distribution plays a more important role in bulk geochemical variability. The effects of weathering are very dominant in the Allier terrace sands. It turned out that most of the original sand composition of terraces older than Weichselian was altered by weathering processes. Although it is possible to simulate this parent material controlled weathering, it remains impossible to reconstruct their original sediment composition a characteristic necessary for a paleoenvironmental reconstruction.

2 Sediment flux reconstruction

By extensively measuring the changes in sand bulk geochemistry at a major confluence, past sediment mixing can be characterized and quantified. This quantification can be used to reconstruct the past relative sediment fluxes within the studied system. To permit a reliable reconstruction of the past sediment mixing, spatial variability within the terrace sands was studied first. The sediment flux reconstruction could only be done with Weichselian and younger sediments because the effects of weathering processes are limited in these sediments. The good match of the reconstructed fluxes and the known past environment indicates that this methodology is a promising new tool in Quaternary research.

3 Finite state modelling

Although bulk geochemical studies of the Allier terrace sands yielded much new information of the large scale and long term Allier dynamics there still remains a considerable shortage in

large scale quantitative data. In order to bridge the gap between the limited quantitative and abundant descriptive knowledge on Quaternary terrace formation, finite state modelling was applied to construct a 3-D model simulating river terrace formation. The developed model (LIMTER) has therefore only conceptual validity because many used model relationships and functions are derived generalities from theoretical concepts and empirical measurements. The aim to establish a quantitative large scale model was therefore not completely met.

A main disadvantage of the used modelling methodology is that the model can never be validated because it is impossible to measure the long term dynamics of such a large scale system.

We saw that there exists a general agreement on the concept of dynamic equilibrium (Schumm, 1977). This concept is typical for Quaternary geology and geomorphology because it is dynamic and applicable on a long time span. Within such a concept the qualitative aspects of changes dominate. A fluvial system is described in terms of braided versus meandering and aggradation versus incision divided by thresholds, while the real fluvial system has both meandering and braided characteristics, and while deposition and incision usually take contemporaneously place.

Stratigraphic models (Bridge & Leeder, 1979; Tetzlaff & Harbaugh, 1989) simulating fluvial sedimentation originate from the field of sedimentology. These models are more focussed on the variability within sedimentary bodies and their hydraulic parameters. There are a few essential differences between the geomorphological and the sedimentological approach. The geomorphologist is mainly interested in where, when, how and under which conditions, sedimentation and erosion take place. The sedimentologist however, is mainly interested in the deposition process itself and less in when and where. That is why the models of Bridge & Leeder (1979) and Tetzlaff & Harbaugh (1989) have only limited tectonic or climate related inputs or processes. Their model relations are focussed on (sub)processes which have a direct effect on the sediment characteristics like discharge determining grain size distribution. But the more general aspects

of climatic and tectonic settings are often neglected in such models. These limitations find their origin in the scale difference between stratigraphic models and geomorphological models. The existing fluvial deposition models result in detailed stratigraphical output causing an overestimation of general model reliability. The geomorphological models like LIMTER result in more general and global outputs giving a better visualisation of the complex real world system. It are the geomorphological models with their more holistic approach which can give a better representation of the complex overall processes involved in shaping fluvial deposits. Although there is limited overlap in the interests of geomorphologists and sedimentologist it would enrich both disciplines when their modelling attempts would be more related.

Regional conclusions

The application of new combinations of research methodologies in the Allier basin resulted in some new regional insights. Because the Allier sediments now have been radiometrically dated with ^{14}C and Th/U methods a considerable revision of the existing Allier terrace chronology (Fig. 5.1) is necessary. This new chronology has some resemblance with Larue's (1979) chronology, who studied a much larger area. Pastre's (1987) chronology gives systematically much older ages for the terrace sediments, indicating that his methodology of linking the mineralogy of dated volcanics with sand mineralogy is not as accurate as he assumes.

The new chronology shows a large time gap between the deposition of the V and W terrace sediments. The LIMTER simulations clearly indicate that this must have a tectonic origin. It seems that the uplift of the Randan area and probably the Limagne graben as a whole, came to an almost standstill for a few hundred thousands of years during the Middle Pleistocene. LIMTER simulations also suggest differences in uplift rates of both sides of the Allier valley.

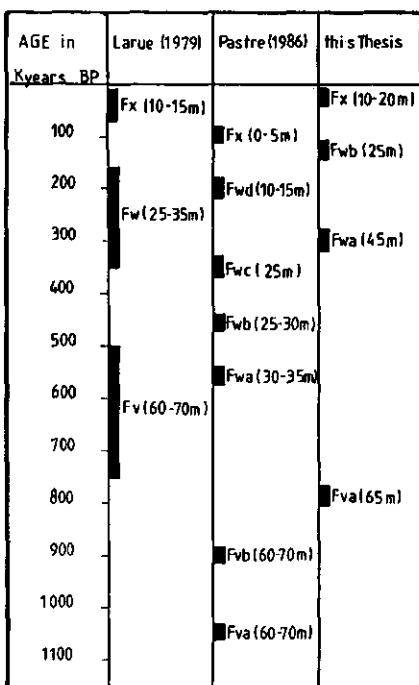


Figure 5.1 The reconstructed terrace chronology

Our paleo-environmental reconstruction shows that sediment flux dynamics in the Allier basin during the Late Quaternary and most probably the whole Pleistocene is strongly related to glacier dynamics on the Cantal and Mont Dore, and thus climate controlled. An indirect result of the strong climatical relationship of the past Allier dynamics is the development of Holocene lake basins (Marais) in Grande Limagne. These lakes are the result of a strong rise of the Allier riverbed level caused by enormous sediment supply due to glacier melting.

Further Research

Simulations of future scenarios with LIMTER suggest more incision and erosion of the current Y and X terraces during the next few thousands years. It is important to keep in mind that such simulations give only very general predictions in time steps of 1000 years. Because the future climate scenarios are still

under discussion and since LIMTER is strongly climate controlled and does not include human factors, it is not realistic to use LIMTER to simulate future scenarios. Only a more refined and improved version will be suitable for such predictive simulations.

The bulk geochemical methodology should be more often used as a quantitative large scale tool to gain insights in long term fluvial system dynamics. The technique of reconstructing sediment fluxes within a fluvial system can be more refined when it is applied on other fluvial systems. A way to make a more reliable past sediment flux reconstruction is to apply the same technique on several confluences within the same basin. In case of the Allier a study at the Sioule/Allier and Loire/Allier confluences combined with the Dore/Allier study would certainly result in a more accurate basin reconstruction.

It is possible to combine such confluence studies with a sediment budget study in the delta. The reconstructed relative sediment fluxes would allow a more quantitative reconstruction of the sediment source areas.

More research is needed to see whether finite state modelling can indeed contribute to better longterm modelling in geomorphology. It is therefore proposed to apply this technique to other macro-scale objects in geomorphology. Another rather successful attempt is already made by modelling coastal terraces as function of changing sea level and uplift (Veldkamp, in prep). The 3-D terrace model may gain more value by adapting it to different fluvial systems. This has been done for the Meuse system, a fluvial system in which the impact of glaciers is very limited compared with the Allier system (Veldkamp & van den Berg, subm.).

Another way to improve LIMTER is to combine finite state modelling with the methodology of "fuzzy knowledge". The result would be a model with less firm decision rules allowing more realistic system states.

Although it is generally known that the current state of knowledge in geomorphology obstructs pure numerical modelling,

this should not hold up the efforts of trying it. Of course new methodologies have to be developed to measure large scale processes on the appropriate scale. Such efforts will hopefully reveal knowledge gaps, indicating where additional theorizing is necessary. Finite state modelling will allow to test/simulate newly developed concepts and theories.

It is a pity that as a result of increasing modelling activities the attention of geomorphologists shifted more to the short term processes. The fact that many global theories have their roots in the 19th century indicates that theorizing on large scales in geomorphology has come to an almost stand still. Better balanced research activities will contribute more to the field as a whole, and will sooner lead to workable solutions of scale problems in geomorphology.

REFERENCES

- Abbey, S., 1980, Studies in 'Standard samples' for use in the general analysis of silicate rocks and minerals. Part 6: 1979 edition of 'usable' values, Geol. Surv. Canada Pap 80-14:30 pp
- Anderson, M.G., 1988, Modelling geomorphological systems. John Wiley & Sons Ltd, London.
- Anderson, M.G. & Sambles, K.M., 1988, A review of the bases of geomorphological modelling. In: Anderson, M.G., (Ed), Modelling geomorphological systems. John WIEY & Sons Ltd, London.
- Andres, W., 1989, The Central German upland, Catena supplement 15, p. 25-44.
- Autran, A. & Peterlongo, J.M., 1980, Le Massif Central In: Géologie des Pays Européens, France, Belgique, Luxembourg. Dunod (Paris): 3-133.
- Basu, A., 1976, Petrology of Holocene fluvial sands derived from plutonic source rocks: implications to paleoclimatic interpretation. Jour. Sed. Petr. vol 46, no.3 p. 694-709.
- Bathurst, J.C., 1988, Flow processes and data provision for channel flow models, in: Anderson M.G. (Ed) Modelling geomorphological systems. John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Bear, F.E., (Ed), 1964, Chemistry of the soil, 2 nd ed., Reinhold publishing corporation, New York
- Begin, Z.B. & Schumm S.A., 1984, Gradational thresholds and landform singularity: significance for Quaternary studies. Quaternary research 21, 267-274.
- Berger, A.L., 1978, Long-term variations of caloric insolation resulting from the Earth's Orbital elements. Quaternary Research 9, 139-167.
- Besson J.C. & Ly, M.H., Cantagrel, J.M., De Goér De Herve A., et Vincent P.M., 1977, Une coulée de ponces post-Villafranchienne sur le versant oriental du Mont-Dore. C.R. Acad. Sc. Paris 284 Sér. D.P. 1875.
- Best, J.L., 1986, The morphology of river channel confluences. Progress Phys. Geogr., 10(2), 157-174.
- Best, J.L., 1988, Sediment transport and bed morphology at river channel confluences. Sedimentology, 35, p 481-498.
- Bloom, A.L., 1978, Geomorphology, a systematic analysis of Late Cenozoic landforms, Prentice-Hall, Inc New York.
- Boll, J., Thewissen, T.J.W., Meijer, E.L., and Kroonenberg, S.B., 1988, A simulation of the development of river terraces, Zeitschrift für Geomorphologie, 32, 31-45
- Bout, P., 1963, Observations sur la basse-terrasse de l'Allier à Pont du Château. Actes du quatre-vingt-huitième congrès national des sociétés savantes. Clermont Ferrand.
- Bradley, R.S., 1985, Quaternary paleoclimatology, methods of paleoclimatic reconstruction. Allen & Unwin, Boston.
- Bridge, J.S. & Leeder, M.R., 1979, A simulation model of alluvial stratigraphy. Sedimentology, 26: 617-644.
- Brunnacker, K. & Boenigk, W., 1983, The Rhine valley between the Neuwied basin and the Lower Rhenish Embayment. In: K. Fuchs et al., (Eds). Plateau Uplift, Springer Verlag, Berlin: 62-72.
- Buch M.W., 1987, Spätpleistozäne und holozäne fluviatile Geomorphodynamik im Donautal östlich von Regensburg - ein Sonderfall unter den mitteleuropäischen Flusssystemen?, Z. Geomorphologie N.F. Suppl.-bd 66, pp.95-111, Berlin.
- Bull, W.B., 1990, Stream-terrace genesis: implications for soil development. Geomorphology, 3, p.351-367.

- Bullock, P., Fedoroff, N., Jongerius, A., Stoops, G., and Tursina, T., 1985, Handbook for soil thin section description. Waine research publications, England, 150 pp.
- Burgess, T.M., Webster, R., & McBratney, A.B., 1981, Optimal interpolation and isarithmic mapping of soil properties. IV sampling strategy. *Journal of Soil Science*, 32, 643-659.
- Cameron, K.L. & Blatt H., 1971, Durabilities of sand size schist and "volcanic" rock fragments during fluvial transport, Elk Creek, Black hills, South Dakota, *Jour. of Sed. Petr.* Vol. 41, no. 2, p. 565-576.
- Camus, G., De Goer, A., Kieffer, G., Mergoil, J., Vincent P.-M., 1983, Parc naturel régional des volcans d'Auvergne, *Volcanologie de la Chaîne des Puys*, A.R.P.E.G.E. imprimerie Moderne 15000 Aurillac.
- Chambaudet, A., & Couthures, J., 1981, Datations par traces de fission de gisements Plio-Pléistocène de la périphérie des Monts-Dore (Massif Central, France), *C.R. Acad. Sc. Paris*, t 293, sér II, pp67-71.
- Chaput, E., 1917, Recherches sur les terrasses alluviales de la Loire et de ses principaux affluents. *Thèse Annales de l'Université de Lyon nouv. série I*, Faç 41. (from J.F. Pastre, 1987)
- Church, M. & Kellerhals, R., 1978, On the Statistics of grain size variation along a gravel river. *Can. J. Earth Sci.*, 15, p. 1151-1160.
- Chorley, R.J., Schumm, S.A., and Sugden, D.F., 1984, *Geomorphology*, Methuen and Co Ltd New York.
- Clozier, L., Fleury, R., Giot D., 1980, in: BRGM, *Carte géologique de la France à 1/50 000, Maringues XXVI-30 Note explicative*, Orléans, France
- Colman, S.M. & Dethier, D.P., 1986, Rates of chemical weathering of rocks and minerals. Academic Press Inc.
- Daugas, J.-P. & Tixier, L., 1978, Stratigraphie du Quaternaire récent et niveau archéologique protohistorique à Coudes (Puy-de-Dôme). *L'Antropologie*, T. 82 no. 3 pp.439-450.
- Davies, D.K., Vessell, R.K., Miles, R.C., Foley M.G., Bonis S.B., 1978, Fluvial transport and downstream sediment modifications in an active volcanic region. In: Miall A.D., (Ed) *Fluvial Sedimentology*: Canadian Soc. of Petroleum petrologists, mémoire 5, p.61-83.
- Dawson, M.R. & Gardiner, V., 1987, River terraces, the general model and palaeohydrological and sedimentological interpretation of the terraces of the Lower Severn. in: Gregory, K.J., Lewin, J. & Thornes, J.B. (Eds), *Palaeohydrology in practise*, John Wiley & Sons Ltd, London.
- Debard, E. & Pastre, J.-F., 1988, Un marqueur chronostratigraphique du Pléistocene moyen à la périphérie du Massif Central: la retombée à clinopyroxène vert du Sancy dans le site acheuléen d'Orgnac III (Bas-Vivarais, SE France), *C.R. Acad. Sci. Paris*, T.306, Série II, p.1515-1520.
- De Beaulieu, J.-L. & Reille, M., 1984, A long Upper Pleistocene pollen record from Les Echets, near Lyon, France. *Boreas*, Vol. 13, pp. 111-132.
- De Beaulieu, J.-L., Pons, A., et Reille, M., 1982, Recherches pollenanalytiques sur l'histoire de la végétation de la bordure nord du Massif du Cantal (Massif Central, France), *Pollen et Spores*, vol XXIV, no 2 p 252-300.
- Dillon, W.R. & Goldstein, M., 1984, *Multivariate Analysis, methods and applications*. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- Drees, L.R. & Wilding, L.P., 1978, Elemental distribution in the light mineral isolate of soil separates. *Soil. Sci. Am. J.*, vol. 42.
- Dury, G.H., 1970, *Rivers and river terraces*, Macmillan, London.
- Elzas, M.S., 1978, Systemen en modellen, *Landbouwkundig tijdschrift* 90-8a (in Dutch).

- Etlicher, B., Janssen, C.R., Juvigné, E., Leeuwen, J.F.N., 1987, Le haut Forez (Massif Central, France) après le pleniglaciaire Würmien: environnement et tephra du volcan de la Nugère. Bulletin de l'association française pour l'étude de Quaternaire, 1987-4 229-239.
- Fairbridge, R.W., 1968, Terraces, fluvial-environment controls, in: Fairbridge, R.W., (Ed), Encyclopedia of geomorphology: Reinhold Book Corp. New York, p 1124-1138.
- F.A.O., 1974 Soil map of the world, 1:5000,000, Vol I Legend FAO UNESCO Paris, 59 pp.
- Feijtel, T.C., Jongmans, A.G., Miedema, R., Van Breemen, N., 1988, Genesis of two planosols in the Massif Central France. Geoderma, 43: 249-269.
- Feijtel, T.C., Jongmans, A.G., Van Doesburg, J., 1989, Identification of clay coatings in an older Quaternary terrace of the Allier, Limagne, France. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 53: 876-882.
- Feijtel, T.C. & Meijer, E.L., 1990, Simulation of soil forming processes. Syllabus of course with spreadsheets and exercises. Internal report Department of Soil Science and Geology, Agricultural University Wageningen, The Netherlands.
- Findlay, W. & Watt, D.A., 1981, PASCAL, an introduction to methodical programming. Pitman publishing limited, London, second edition.
- Franzinelli, E., & Potter, P.E., 1982, Petrology, chemistry, and texture of modern river sands, Amazon river system, Journal of Geology, vol.91, p.23-39.
- Gibbard, P.L., 1988, The history of the great northwest European rivers during the past three million years. Phil. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. B318, 559-602.
- Giot, D., Clozier, L., Fleury, R., 1978, Manifestations tectoniques quaternaires en Limagne d'Allier. Bull. du BRGM, section I, no 2, p. 150-155.
- Goldich, S.S., 1938, A study in rock-weathering, Jour. of Geology, 46 .17-58.
- Green, C.P. & McGregor, D.F.M., 1986, The utility of intercomponent ratios in the interpretation of stone count data, In: Bridgeland, D.R., (Ed), Clast lithological analysis, Quaternary Research Association, Technical guide no. 3, p. 83-93.
- Green, C.P. & McGregor, D.F.M., 1987, River terraces: a stratigraphic record of environmental change. In: Gardiner, V., (Ed), 1986, International geomorphology 1986 Part I. John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Gregory K.J., (Ed) 1983, Background to palaeohydrology. John Wiley & Sons Ltd, London.
- Gregory, K.J., Lewin, J. & Thornes, J.B. (Eds), 1987, Palaeohydrology in practise, John Wiley & Sons Ltd, London.
- Hay, R.L., 1960, Rate of clay formation and mineral alteration in a 4000 year-old volcanic ash soil on St Vincent, B.W.I., Am. Jour. of Science, vol. 258, p.354-368.
- Hays, J.D., Imbrie, J., Shackleton, N.J., 1976, Variations in the earth's orbit, pacemaker of the iceages. Science 194, p 1121-1132
- Heller, F. & Wang, J., 1991, Magnetism of Quaternary sediments: Löss in China. Special Proceedings, Review reports, for symposia of the XIII International congress INQUA Beijing, 1991, p 88-98
- Howes, S. & Anderson, M.G., 1988, Computer simulation in geomorphology. In: Anderson, M.G., (Ed), Modelling geomorphological systems. John Wiley & Sons Ltd, London.
- Hugget, R.J., 1985, Earth Surface systems, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg. 262 p.
- Huntington, E., 1907, Some characteristics of the glacial period in nonglaciated regions. Geol. Soc. Amer. Bull. Vol 18, pp 351-388.

- Ichim, I., & Radoane M., 1990, Channel sediment variability along a river: a case study of the Siret River (Romania). Earth Surface Processes and Landforms, vol. 15, 211-225.
- Imbrie, J. & Palmer-Imbrie, K., 1979, Ice ages, solving the mystery. Enslow Publishers Hill Side, New Jersey.
- Jeanbrun, M., Dadet, P., Clozier, L., Fleury, R., et al., 1980, Garte Géologique de la France a 1:50.000 Maringues XXVI-30, Note explicative BRGM, Orléans 54p.
- Jongmans, A.G., Van Doesburg, J., and Van Breemen, N., 1990, Micromorphology and mineralogy of weathering and neoformation phenomena in a Quaternary terrace sequence of the Allier, Limagne, France. Chemical Geology vol 84, no 1/4 p. 83-85.
- Jongmans, A.G., Feijtel, T.C., Miedema, R., Van Breemen, N., Veldkamp, A., 1991. Soil formation in a Quaternary terrace sequence of the Allier, Limagne, France. Macro and Micro morphology, particle size distribution, chemistry. Geoderma 49. p.215-239.
- Journel, A.G. & Huijbregts, Chr. J., 1978, Mining Geostatistics. Academic press, New York, N.Y.
- Jung J., Symposium 1971, Géologie, géomorphologie et structure profonde du Massif Central français; Plein Air Service éd., Clermont-Ferrand, 1 vol., 610 p., 154 fig.
- Juvigné, E. & Gewelt, M. 1987, La narse d'ampoix comme téphrostratotype dans la Chaîne des Puys Méridionale (France). Bulletin de l'Association française pour l'étude de Quaternaire, 1987-1, p.37-49.
- Juvigné, E., Milcamps, V., Delibrias, G. & Evin, J., 1988, Ages de traits polliniques et chronozonation du Tardiglaciare final et de l'Holocène dans le Massif Central (France), Mededelingen rijks geologische dienst vol. 42 p. 33-50.
- Kieffer, G., 1971, Aperçu, sur la morphologie des régions volcaniques du massif central. Symposium J. Jung 1971 Clermont-Ferrand, p479-510.
- Knighton, A.D., 1982, Longitudinal changes in the size and shape of streambed material: evidence of variable transport conditions. Catena vol. 9, 25-34.
- Kominz, M.A., Heath, G.R., Ku, T.L., Pisias, N.G., 1979, Brunhes time scales and the interpretation of climatic change. Earth Planet Sci. Lett. 45, p 394.
- Komura, S., 1973, River-bed variations at confluences. Proceedings International symposium on river mechanics. International Association for hydraulic research.
- Kroonenberg, S.B., van den Berg van Saparoea, R.M., Jonker A.T.J., 1987, Late glacial and Holocene development of semi-closed basins (Thaw lakes?) in the Limagne Rift Valley, French Central Massif, Geol. Mijnbouw 66:297-311.
- Kroonenberg, S.B., Moura, M.L., Jonker, A.T.J., 1988, Geochemistry of the sands of the Allier river terraces, France. Geologie en Mijnbouw 67: 75-89.
- Kroonenberg, S.B., van der Plicht, J., Vlaanderen, B. & Wassink, W., 1989, Th-U disequilibrium dating of travertine-impregnated Pleistocene Alluvial terraces in the Limagne Rift Valley, France. Busche, D., (Ed), Abstracts of paper and poster of second international conference on geomorphology., Geoöko plus 1, p. 162.
- Kroonenberg, S.B., 1990, Geochemistry of Quaternary fluvial sands from different tectonic regimes. Volume 84, no 1/4 p 88-91.
- Kroonenberg, S.B., Hoorn, M.C., Moura, M.L., & Veldkamp, A., 1990, Variability in bulk geochemistry of fluvial terrace sands, consequences for the study of weathering chronosequences. Pedologie XL-1 p 19-31.

- Lambert. J., C. Orcel., J., Daugas & J. P. Raynal, 1980, Premiers résultats dendrochronologiques pour le Massif Central français obtenus sur un bois fossillé de la basse terrasse de l'Allier à Joze (Puy-de-Dôme). C. R. Acad. Sc. Paris, t.290 série D p263-266.
- Larue, J.P. 1977, étude du matériel différentes nappes alluviales de l'Allier., Extrait de la revue d'Auvergne tome 91-numéro 3, Institut de Géographie LIV, Clermont-Reproduction, Aubière.
- Larue J.P., 1979, Les nappes alluviales de la Loire et de ses affluents dans le Massif Central et dans le Sud de bassin Parisien: étude géomorphologique. Thèse géographie, Clermont II, multigraphiée 543 p., plus annexes: 30 cartes, 126 planches.
- Léger, M., 1983, Signification dynamique et climatique des formations et terrasses fluviatiles quaternaires, Colloque de l'Associations française pour l'étude de Quaternaire. Paris, Deuxième série 21 année no 17-18-19 /1 /2 /3.
- Lenselink G., Kroonenberg, S.B. & Loison, G. 1990, Periglacial to Holocene paleo-environments in the Artière basin in the Western Limagne rift valley, Massif Central, France. Quaternaire 2, p.131-148.
- Leopold, L.B., Wolman, M.G. & Miller, J.P., 1964, Fluvial processes in geomorphology. W.H. Freeman & Company, San Francisco.
- Levine, E.R. & Ciolkosz, J., 1986, A computer simulation model for soil genesis applications. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 50:661-667.
- Lowe, D.J., 1986, Controls on the rates of weathering and clay mineral genesis in airfall tephras: a review and New Zealand case study. In: Colman S.M., Dethier, D.P., (Eds), Rates of chemical weathering of rocks and mineral, Academic Press, Inc New York. P.265-330.
- Lowe, J.J. & Walker, M.J.C., 1984, Reconstructing Quaternary environments. Longman Group, New York.
- Ly, M. H., 1982, Le plateau de Perrier et la Limagne du Sud: Etudes volcanologiques et chronologiques des produits Montdoriens (Massif Central français). Thèse III^e cycle, Clermont Fd.
- Maizels, J.K., 1986, Modelling of palaeohydrologic change during deglaciation, géographie et physique Quaternaire, vol XL no3, p.263-277.
- McGregor, D.F. & Green, C.P., 1978, Gravels of the River Thames as a guide to Pleistocene catchment changes. Boreas, Vol 7., pp 197-203.
- Mitchell, D.J., & Gerrard, A.J. 1987, Morphological responses and sediment patterns. in: Gregory, K.J., Lewin, J., and Thornes, J.B., Palaeohydrology in Practice. John Wiley & Sons Ltd, London.
- Mosley, M. P. 1976, An experimental study of channel confluences, Journal of Geology vol 84, p.535-562.
- Moura, M.L. & Kroonenberg, S.B. 1990, Geochemistry of Quaternary fluvial sediment in the southeastern Netherlands, Geologie en Mijnbouw, 69: 359-373.
- Norusis, M.J., 1986, Advanced statistics SPSS/PC+ for the IBM/XT/AT SPSSinc, Chicago, USA.
- Odom, I.E., Doe, T.W., Dott, R.H., 1976, Nature of feldspar-grain relations in some quartz-rich sandstones. Jour. Sed. Petr. vol. 46, no.4 p.862-870
- Pastre, J.F., 1986, Altération et paleoaltération des minéraux lourds des alluvions Pliocènes et Pleistocènes du bassin de l'Allier (Massif Central, France) Assoc. Rf. Etude Quat. Bull. 3/4:257- 269.
- Pastre, J.F., 1987, Les formations Plio-Quaternaires du bassin de l'Allier et le volcanisme régional (Massif Central, France). Thèse doctorat de l'Université Paris IV. 706 p.

- Pelletier, H., 1971, Sur les minéraux lourds transparentes des alluvions anciennes et récentes de la Limagne, d'Auvergne. Thèse Fac. Sci. Clermont-Ferrand, 79 p.
- Pettijohn, F.J., Potter, P.E., Siever, R., 1987, Sand and sandstone, second edition, Springer Verlag, New York, Berlin, Heidelberg.
- Pierre, G., 1989, Les altérites fossilisées par des coulées de lave: valeur paleoclimatique et implications geomorphologiques; l'exemple de l'Auvergne, de l'Aubrac et du Velay. Thèse à l'université de Paris I Pantheon Sorbonne.
- Plant, J.A., Hale, M., Ridgeway, J., 1988, Developments in regional geochemistry for mineral exploration. Trans. Inst. Min. Metall. (sect. B: Appl. Earth Sci) 97 p B116-B130.
- Porta, J. & Herrero J., 1990, Micromorphology and genesis of soils enriched with gypsum, In: L.A., Douglas (Ed), Soil Micromorphology: a basic and applied science: proceedings of the VIIIth International working meeting of soil micromorphology, San Antonio, Texas July 1988, Elsevier p.321-339.
- Potter P.E., 1978, Petrology and chemistry of modern big river sands., Journal of Geology, vol. 86 p. 423-449.
- Raynal, J.-P., Paquereau, M.-M. & Daugas, J.-P., 1981, Stratigraphie - La formation fluviatile de Sainte-Martine (Pont-du-Château, Puy-de-Dôme), nouvelle séquence de Pléistocene Moyen d'Auvergne. C.R. Acad. Sc. Paris t. 292, Série II - p. 841-846.
- Raynal, J.-P., 1984, Chronologie des basses terrasses de l'Allier en grande Limagne (Puy-de-Dôme, France). Bulletin de l'Association française pour l'étude du Quaternaire, 1.2.3., p.79-84.
- Raynal, J.P., Daugas, J.P., Paquereau, M.M., Guadelli, J.L., Marchianti, D., Miallier, D., Fain, J., Sanzelle, S., 1984, Le maar de Saint-Hippolyte (Puy-de-Dôme, France), Datation par thermoluminescence, flores et faunes fossiles, présence humaine, climatochronologie et dynamique du système paléo-lacustre. Rev. Sc. d'Auvergne, Vol. 50,
- Raynal, J.P., Paquereau, M.M., Daugas, J.P., Miallier, D., Fain, J. & Sanzelle, S., 1985, Contribution à la datation du volcanisme Quaternaire du Massif Central français par thermoluminescence des inclusions de quartz et comparaison avec d'autres approches: implications chronostratigraphiques et paléoenvironnementales. Bulletin de l'Association française pour l'étude de Quaternaire 1985/4 p.183-207.
- Reille, M. & De Beaulieu, J.-L., 1988, La fin de l'Eémien et les interstadés du Prewürm mis pour la première fois en évidence dans le Massif Central français par l'analyse pollinique. C. R. Acad. Sc. Paris, t. 306, série II p. 1205-1210.
- Riezebos, P.A., 1971, A contribution to the sedimentary petrological description of the Maas deposits in southern Limburg (The Netherlands), Geologie en Mijnbouw, vol. 50 (3), p.506-514.
- Roy, A.G., & Bergeron, N., 1990, Flow and particle paths at a natural river confluence with coarse bed material. Geomorphology 3, p. 99-112.
- Rudel, A., 1953, La faune Quaternaire des terrasses de l'Allier à Pont du Château. Rev. des Sc. Nat. d'Auv., pp 43-47.
- Rudel, A., 1963, Les minéraux lourds des terrasses Quaternaires de Limagne d'Auvergne et les éruptions montdorriennes Soc. Geol. Fr. Bull. (7):468-469.
- Ruxton, B.P., 1968, Rates of weathering of Quaternary volcanic ash in north east Papua. Trans. IX Int. Congr. Soil Sci, Adelaide, 4:367-376.
- Schumm, S.A., 1977, The fluvial system, Wiley New York.

- Schumm, S.A. & Lichty, R.W., 1965, Time, space and causality in geomorphology. American Journal of Science, vol 263, p 110-119.
- Schumm, S.A., Mosley, M.P. & Weaver, W.E., 1987, Experimental fluvial geomorphology. John Wiley, New York. 413 p.
- Staritsky, I.G., 1989, Manual for the geostatistical programs SPATANAL, CROSS and MAPIT. Agricultural University Wageningen, Department of Soil Science and Geology, internal report.
- Starkel, L., 1983, The reflection of hydrologic changes in the fluvial environment of the temperate zone during the last 15,000 years. In: Gregory, K.J., (Ed), Background to Palaeohydrology, John Wiley & Sons, London.
- Stein, A., Bouma, J., Mulders, M.A., & Weterings M.H.W., 1989, Using spatial variability studies to estimate physical land qualities of a level river terrace, Soil Technology, 2, 385-402.
- Stevens, P.R. & Walker, T.W., 1970, The chronosequence concept and soil formation. The quarterly review of biology, vol 45. p. 333-350.
- Strakhov, N.M., 1969, Principles of lithogenesis, vol 2. Consultants Bureau, New York and Oliver & Boyd, Edinburgh.
- Tetzlaff, D.M. & Harbaugh, J.W., 1989, Simulating clastic sedimentation. Computer methods in the geosciences. Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Texier, J.-P., & Raynal, J.-P., 1984, Les dépôts et terrasses fluviatiles d'aquitaine et du bassin de l'Allier. Bulletin de l'Association française pour l'étude du Quaternaire, 1.2.3., p. 67-71.
- Thornes, J.B., 1987, Models for palaeohydrology in practice. in: Gregory, K.J., Lewin, J. & Thornes, J.B. (Eds), Palaeohydrology in practise, John Wiley & Sons Ltd, London.
- Tourenq, J., 1986, Etude sedimentologique des alluvions de la Loire et de l'Allier des roches des bassins versants Doc. BRGM 108:108 pp.
- Tuffery, C., 1986, Les formations alluviales récentes de l'Allier dans la région de Vichy: chronostratigraphie et évolution morphologique. thèse Institut de Géographie, Université de Clermont-Fd II.
- Van den Berg, M.W., 1989, Toelichting op kaartblad, 59,60,61,62, Geomorfologische kaart van Nederland 1:50.000, Staring Centrum, Wageningen, Rijksgeologische Dienst, Haarlem. 33 p.
- Van Dorsser, H.J., 1969, Etude geomorphologique dans une partie de la vallée de l'Allier dans la Grande Limagne Publ. ITC, Delft, Pays Bas, Ser.B 50:66 pp.
- Van Straaten, L.M.J.U., 1946, Grindonderzoek in Zuid-Limburg. Meded. Geol. Sticht. Serie C-VI-2.
- Veldkamp, A. & S.E.J.W. Vermeulen, 1989, River terrace formation, modelling, and 3-D graphical simulation. Earth Surface Processes and Landforms, vol 14, 641-654.
- Veldkamp, A. & Kroonenberg, S.B., 1989, A comparison of the sand geochemistry of the Allier and Dore terraces, Limagne Rift Valley, France. in: Busche D., (Ed), Abstracts of papers and posters, second international conference on geomorphology, Frankfurt, GeoÖko plus 1, vol 1, p 304.
- Veldkamp A., 1990, Prediction of bulk chemical composition of fluvial sands from grain size data, Allier and Dore terrace sands Limagne Rift Valley, France. Chemical Geology vol 84 no 1/4 p 208-209.
- Veldkamp, A. & Jongmans, A.G., 1990, Trachytic pumice weathering, Massif Central, France: geochemistry and micromorphology. Chemical Geology vol 84, no 1/4, p. 145-147.
- Veldkamp, A. & Feijtel T.C., 1990, Regional weathering with bulk geochemistry: a case study for the Allier terrace sands, Limagne, France. Chemical Geology vol 84, nol/4 p 142-144.

- Veldkamp, A. & Kroonenberg, S.B., 1991, The effects of a periglacial environment on the fluvial dynamics of the Allier during the Late Weichselian, Limagne, France. Abstract, Symposium periglacial environments in relation to climatic change Maastricht/Amsterdam 3-6 may. p.13-14.
- Veldkamp, A., 1991, Reconstructing past sediment fluxes within a fluvial system: the Allier basin during the Late Quaternary. Abstract XIII INQUA, Beijing, China, p 368.
- Veldkamp, E., Jongmans, A.G., Feijtel, T.C., Veldkamp, A. & Van Breemen, N., 1990, Alkali basalt gravel weathering in Quaternary Allier river terraces, Limagne, France. Soil Science Soc. of Am. Journal. 54: 1043-1048.
- Veyret, Y., 1980, Quelques caractères d'une moyenne montagne englacée, exemple des hautes terres cristallines et volcaniques du massif central français. Rev. de Géomorphologie dyn. 29, p.49-65.
- Veyret, Y., 1978, Modèle et formation d'origine glaciaire dans le Massif Central français, problèmes de distribution et de limites dans un milieu de moyenne montagne. Thèse de doctorat d'état, Université de Paris I. 2 vol, 783 p.
- Wedepohl, K.H. (Executive Editor), 1970, Handbook of geochemistry, Springer-Verlag Berlin, Heidelberg, New York.
- Wijck van, H., 1985, Zware mineralen onderzoek Limagne Frankrijk, Internal report, Department of Soil science and Geology, Agricultural University Wageningen. (In Dutch).
- Woillard, G.M., 1978, Grande Pile peat bog: a continuous pollen record for the last 140,00 years. Quaternary research, 9. 1-21.
- Woillard, G.M. & Mook, W.G., 1982, Carbon-14 dates at Grande Pile Correlation of land and sea chronologies. Report in: Science, Vol 215, Jan. p. 159-161.
- Yaalon, D.H., 1975, Conceptual models in pedogenesis: Can soil-forming functions be solved? Geoderma 14, 189-205.
- Ziegler, B.P., 1976, Theory of modelling and simulation: An introductory exposition of concepts. Department of applied mathematics, The Weizmann institute Tehovot, Israel, Wiley, New York.

Curriculum vitae

Antonie Veldkamp werd geboren op 22 mei 1963 te Nieuwe Pekela. In 1981 behaalde hij het Atheneum-B diploma aan de scholengemeenschap St Michiel te Geleen. Hij studeerde vanaf 1981 Bodemkunde en Bemestingsleer (N33) aan de Landbouwuniversiteit waar hij in 1985 het kandidaatsexamen aflegde. Van maart 1985 tot april 1986 was hij werkzaam bij het TPIP project in Embu (Kenya) waar hij zijn praktijktijd en veldwerk voor twee hoofdvakken volbracht. Deze twee hoofdvakken, Geologie en Tropische Bodemkunde, werden vervolgens in Wageningen afgerond. De doctoraalstudie bestond verder nog uit een hoofdvak informatica. In september 1987 verkreeg hij het ingenieursdiploma met lof.

Vanaf januari 1988 tot januari 1991 was hij als Onderzoeker in Opleiding (OIO) werkzaam bij de stichting Aardwetenschappelijk Onderzoek Nederland (AWON) en gestationeerd bij de vakgroep bodemkunde en geologie van de Landbouwuniversiteit.

APPENDIX I

XRF analysis

X-ray fluorescence analysis (XRFS) is a standard analytical tool to obtain quantitative geochemical data. At the Department of Soil Science and Geology a method for determination of trace elements in glass beads of fused soil and sediment samples was developed (Kuijper & Meijer, 1987). A Sc tube is used to determine both macro and trace elements. In 1989 this method was replaced by another method whereby trace elements are measured with a Rhodium X-ray tube in combination with the measuring of the Compton scattered radiation (internal ratio method). The macro elements are still measured with a Sc tube.

The X-ray fluorescence instrumentation include a Philips PW1410 wavelength-dispersive spectrometer, LiF200 and LiF220 analyzing crystal, scintillation and gas flow-proportional counters and an automatic sample changer. More detailed instrumental information of the used method is given by Moura & Feijtel (1989).

A major disadvantage of the current methodology is that it is impossible to calculate the Lower Limit of Detection (LLD) for the trace elements. It is possible to estimate the LLD based on the standard reference sample which are used to calibrate the system. As LLD's estimated in this way still tend to give an under estimation of detection limits a more practical way to estimate the detection limits was used (Thompson & Howarth, 1978; Reimann & Wurzer, 1987; Reimann, 1988). The practical detection limit instead of the rather meaningless theoretical detection limit was estimated from 50 duplo's of the Limagne project sand samples (Tab I.1 & I.2).

Table I.1 Determination of practical detection limits for macro elements of the Allier and Dore sands. (50 duplos)

Element	Mean diff.	Std diff	Est. LD	line fit
SiO ₂	0.64	0.71	~1.00	poor
TiO ₂	0.07	0.06	<0.01	good
Al ₂ O ₃	0.22	0.22	~0.01	average
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.02	0.02	<0.01	good
MnO*	0.00	0.00	>0.01	no relationship
MgO	0.03	0.03	<0.01	poor
CaO	0.01	0.01	~0.01	poor
Na ₂ O	0.42	0.17	~0.01	average
K ₂ O	0.13	0.03	<0.01	good
P ₂ O ₅ *	0.01	0.01	~0.01	poor
BaO*	0.01	0.01	~0.01	no relationship

* = not very reliable element

~ = difficult to estimate as only high concentrations occur in data set.

Table I.2 Determination of practical detection limits for trace elements of the Allier and Dore sands. (50 duplos)

Element	Mean	difference	criterion(%)	LD	line fit
Ba*	639	20	3	>800	nvt
Co*	29	7	29	>50	nvt
Cu*	<6	-	-	>6	nvt
Cr	51	2	5	4	poor
Ga*	14	2	11	>25	nvt
La	37	11	35	20	poor
Nb	8	2	35	6	poor
Ni	46	5	13	8	average
Pb	36	3	7	1	average
Rb	136	24	18	3	good
Sr	280	35	12	6	good
V	117	38	39	31	good
Zn	37	2	7	3	average
Zr	194	17	9	3	good

* = unreliable element

$$\text{criterion p} = \frac{|x - x'|}{x + x'} \times 2 \times 100\%$$

References

- Kuijper, A.J., Meijer, E.L., 1987, Het meten van sporenelementen in boraatparaels met de Philips PW1404 rontgenspectrometer. Intern rapport, Vakgroep Bodemkunden en Geologie.
- Moura M.L., Feijtel T.C., 1989, Analysis of trace elements using X-ray fluorescence system: application of the Rh-Compton correction method. Internal report Department of Soil Science and Geology.
- Reimann, C., 1988, Reliability of geochemical analysis: recent experiences. In: MacDonald, D.R., & Mills, K.A., (Eds), Prospecting in areas of glaciated terrain 1988; The Canadian Institute of Mining and Metallurgy. p. 485-499.
- Reimann, C., Wurzer F., 1987, Monitoring accuracy and precision, improvements by introducing robust and resistant statistics. Mikrochim. Acta 1986 II 31-42.
- Thompson, M., & Howarth, R.J., 1978, A new approach to the estimation of analytical precision. Journal of geochemical Exploration, 9. p 23-30.

Bulk geochemical measurements of Allier and Dore sands used in this thesis are listed below. For each sample the following data are listed: sample number, location name, map coordinates (From 1:25.000 topographical maps), terrace code, absolute and relative altitudes (m), sampling depth (m), Distance upstream from actual Allier/Dore confluence (Upstr) in km, Median of grain size distribution, SiO₂, TiO₂, Al₂O₃, Fe₂O₃, MnO, MgO, CaO, Na₂O, K₂O, P₂O₅, BaO, V, Cr, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Ga, Rb, Sr, Zr, Nb, Ba, La, Pb.

Sample	P205	BaO	V	Cr	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Nb	Ba	La	Pb
K20	AV109	0.19	0.05	129	82	4.2	60	12	103	17	979	65
	AV110	2.45	0.39	0.05	247	106	66	60	12	89	494	84
	AV116	2.90	0.19	0.05	117	82	49	60	12	96	9	16
	AV117	3.05	0.19	0.05	86	82	70	60	12	110	102	12
	AV120	3.09	0.13	0.06	73	82	50	60	12	74	10	25
	AV121	3.23	0.17	0.07	53	82	39	60	12	117	117	13
	AV122	3.13	0.20	0.06	103	82	46	60	12	44	13	21
	401	2.95	0.12	0.06	111	82	54	60	10	25	14	17
	394	2.88	0.15	0.07	125	82	30	60	10	41	17	8
	AV78	3.52	0.15	0.07	68	82	43	60	10	32	18	106
	AV79	3.77	0.10	0.07	68	82	55	60	10	151	176	154
	AV80	3.37	0.12	0.07	68	82	52	60	10	25	16	15
	AV68	3.03	0.14	0.06	89	82	55	60	12	30	18	24
	AV69	2.75	0.18	0.05	112	82	46	60	15	119	248	108
	AV70	3.30	0.12	0.07	59	82	61	60	10	51	16	39
	393	2.36	0.23	0.05	236	82	51	60	18	55	12	106
	AV17	3.42	0.19	0.08	113	82	49	60	14	147	190	59
	AV44	3.60	0.09	0.08	68	82	41	60	10	28	14	24
	AV45	4.43	0.09	0.07	68	82	69	60	10	13	12	14
	AV46	4.31	0.08	0.07	68	82	12	60	10	119	248	108
	AV47	3.22	0.18	0.06	313	82	31	60	13	51	16	39
	AV94	3.40	0.27	0.08	181	82	40	60	12	107	18	106
	AV95	3.12	0.24	0.05	235	82	38	60	12	13	127	316
	AV98	2.77	0.27	0.06	101	40	60	60	12	140	190	114
	AV99	2.88	0.29	0.06	167	82	40	60	12	12	12	23
	AV12	2.72	0.19	0.04	224	91	115	60	10	16	14	22
		3.22	0.13	0.06	224	91	115	60	10	182	193	57
	AV15	3.58	0.14	0.07	68	82	44	60	12	98	17	17
	AV106	3.58	0.14	0.07	68	82	44	60	12	107	18	17
	AV107	3.37	0.20	0.07	80	82	43	60	12	73	15	21
	395	4.46	0.08	0.07	68	82	52	60	10	147	240	147
	396	4.65	0.06	0.11	68	82	49	60	12	170	154	75
	397	3.91	0.20	0.09	179	82	44	60	16	91	17	13
	398	3.64	0.12	0.07	104	82	44	60	10	12	103	12
	399	3.43	0.09	0.06	92	82	39	60	10	39	14	16
	400	3.32	0.08	0.05	70	82	64	60	10	25	146	205
	AV87	2.09	0.53	0.04	419	161	34	60	35	126	21	20
	AV88	2.75	0.37	0.05	265	131	39	60	27	99	23	20
	AV118	3.61	0.16	0.06	101	82	44	60	12	94	11	17
	AV119	2.75	0.24	0.03	205	97	51	60	12	156	217	87
	AV81	3.32	0.08	0.08	68	82	41	60	13	28	13	18
	AV67	2.91	0.23	0.03	263	82	56	60	20	101	20	10
	AV29	2.71	0.23	0.06	137	82	13	60	17	17	16	12
	AV30	2.90	0.22	0.06	132	82	47	60	19	49	14	12
	AV160	2.54	0.34	0.05	411	82	57	60	10	120	312	142
	AV113	3.15	0.20	0.07	78	82	60	60	17	33	12	11
	AV14	3.25	0.24	0.06	139	82	73	60	18	49	13	16
	AV136	2.79	0.30	0.05	285	82	41	60	10	66	110	65
	AV158	2.71	0.37	0.06	333	82	42	60	10	17	102	523
	AV159	2.72	0.32	0.06	382	82	55	60	10	337	458	182
	AV161	2.54	0.34	0.05	411	82	57	60	10	51	14	11
	AV197	3.07	0.24	0.05	244	82	61	60	10	114	401	183
	AV198	2.68	0.30	0.06	126	82	36	60	19	94	135	64
	AV174	2.84	0.32	0.06	64	82	64	60	10	12	138	192
	AV175	2.79	0.32	0.06	82	78	60	60	10	147	128	98
	AV176	3.29	0.27	0.07	83	62	82	60	13	119	261	130
		3.29	0.24	0.08	88	55	29	54	10	25	15	36
	AV197	3.07	0.22	0.07	85	55	24	50	10	26	14	37
	AV198	3.07	0.20	0.08	74	53	34	51	<6	26	13	30
	AV199	3.09	0.25	0.07	79	49	17	40	9	21	114	286
	AV200	3.28	0.17	0.08	66	45	40	62	26	13	114	283
	AV202	3.23	0.32	0.07	123	73	16	62	19	146	144	34
	AV204	2.67	0.27	0.08	123	73	22	60	15	36	340	144

Sample	P205	BaO	V	Cr	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Rb	Sr	Nb	Ba	La	Pb
K20	AV205	0.22	0.07	92	57	23	54	<6	33	12	118	224	147	6	630
	AV206	0.35	0.20	0.08	77	45	20	45	24	10	115	230	114	<2	631
	AV207	3.26	0.24	0.08	82	46	33	53	29	14	108	123	4	695	37
	AV208	3.22	0.22	0.08	71	48	37	59	25	12	102	312	122	3	623
	AV209	3.02	0.24	0.08	84	44	34	62	30	15	98	311	130	4	666
	AV210	2.41	0.34	0.06	186	95	32	67	54	14	81	354	176	9	520
	AV211	2.97	0.29	0.07	124	76	23	57	7	44	14	100	327	155	<2
	AV212	2.65	0.29	0.08	126	91	31	66	<6	37	14	82	249	148	567
	AV213	5.71	0.01	0.08	112	63	28	60	1.1	32	16	97	335	167	573
	AV214	3.38	0.26	0.08	83	52	14	36	6	20	13	116	277	121	4
	AV217	3.15	0.29	0.06	173	86	38	69	<6	65	13	115	257	181	7
	AV218	3.52	0.29	0.08	85	48	28	48	<6	22	10	126	262	124	2
	AV219	2.68	0.36	0.06	175	109	39	141	60	100	15	93	323	167	8
	AV226	5.78	0.02	0.08	<5	10	44	49	<6	10	10	254	107	112	7
	AV227	5.71	0.08	0.07	7	5	43	45	1.1	<3	12	257	98	69	3
	AV228	6.46	0.02	0.08	17	11	34	38	<6	38	12	322	111	181	8
	AV229	6.28	0.01	0.07	<5	5	5	61	59	<3	13	308	86	64	<2
	AV230	6.64	0.01	0.07	<5	8	8	46	1.4	<3	12	324	89	81	<2
	AV249	2.39	0.38	0.07	171	99	42	76	11	47	16	79	421	168	6
	AV250	3.14	0.28	0.08	109	69	28	66	8	39	16	111	347	144	581
	AV251	2.35	0.38	0.07	149	88	34	68	9	39	15	73	470	171	528
	AV252	2.51	0.36	0.07	141	87	30	65	8	40	13	78	451	169	590
	AV253	2.77	0.33	0.08	131	81	37	64	<6	36	12	91	365	148	612
	AV254	2.93	0.20	0.06	103	72	26	52	<6	36	14	117	325	142	5
	AV255	2.65	0.27	0.08	131	99	42	76	11	274	25	92	351	161	3
	AV273	2.94	0.26	0.07	143	84	36	62	<6	48	14	98	296	159	720
	AV274	2.91	0.27	0.07	125	70	32	62	<6	44	12	97	315	156	520
	AV275	3.04	0.24	0.08	95	59	28	58	<6	27	14	103	288	131	522
	AV276	3.20	0.19	0.07	65	38	60	61	9	23	14	112	268	109	4
	AV277	3.30	0.20	0.08	61	37	29	49	<6	36	14	117	325	142	<12
	AV278	3.44	0.12	0.09	38	15	31	46	<6	13	13	113	266	117	513
	AV287	3.22	0.26	0.08	143	84	35	49	9	274	25	92	351	161	3
	AV288	3.10	0.26	0.07	101	64	20	50	<6	48	14	98	296	159	720
	AV289	3.29	0.22	0.09	65	44	53	64	<6	44	12	97	315	156	522
	AV290	3.59	0.20	0.08	60	33	38	54	<6	27	14	103	288	131	522
	AV291	3.34	0.20	0.07	86	61	23	43	<6	31	13	120	263	130	5
	AV317	3.07	0.26	0.08	104	60	24	49	<6	13	13	108	341	119	693
	AV318	2.94	0.31	0.08	118	66	29	57	8	27	10	111	262	120	4
	AV319	2.85	0.31	0.07	127	84	34	62	<6	35	14	99	403	166	642
	AV320	2.68	0.31	0.07	123	75	38	68	<6	25	11	112	282	152	556
	AV321	3.12	0.25	0.09	86	55	23	48	<6	18	15	120	257	109	4
	AV322	2.99	0.39	0.08	101	58	25	51	<6	31	13	120	263	130	5
	AV454	2.11	0.52	0.06	252	122	40	47	8	37	14	107	348	163	8
	AV455	1.77	0.49	0.05	252	131	28	55	<6	35	14	99	403	166	578
	AV456	2.52	0.26	0.04	156	100	20	45	<6	46	15	96	387	171	523
	AV457	2.43	0.31	0.06	143	81	36	43	<6	44	15	98	374	152	549
	AV459	3.00	0.21	0.07	89	63	24	27	<6	20	14	99	355	145	643
	AV460	3.03	0.49	0.09	78	44	18	24	<6	24	12	114	254	129	3
	AV468	3.44	0.20	0.08	70	46	12	32	<6	28	13	93	384	153	618
	AV491	2.61	0.73	0.08	211	29	23	21	7	52	17	92	175	9	489
	AV162	3.06	0.35	0.07	75	34	13	20	1.3	135	10	135	225	113	625
	AV163	3.30	0.12	0.07	90	37	7	20	14	17	11	139	280	119	602
	AV164	2.43	0.23	0.05	263	97	15	60	9	52	15	90	548	214	506
	AV448	0.46	0.09	0.09	78	44	18	24	<6	14	116	257	118	684	3
	AV449	3.49	0.08	0.08	54	51	31	40	<6	20	14	125	293	117	648
	AV450	2.68	0.75	0.07	218	46	22	27	9	79	20	88	656	303	584
	AV451	3.31	0.08	0.08	118	70	24	51	<6	64	16	92	295	15	611
	AV486	2.91	0.16	0.08	57	38	26	59	<6	18	12	94	248	112	588
	AV487	2.72	0.19	0.07	58	29	12	29	<6	3	11	84	272	111	612
	AV488	2.73	0.20	0.07	91	69	19	48	<6	87	12	87	277	124	564
	AV488	2.73	0.20	0.07	91	69	19	48	<6	87	12	87	277	124	564

Sample	labnur	Location	x-coord	y-coord	Terrace	Alt	RelAlt	Depth
AV333	L'etang Garmy	529.400	5083.800	Fva	326	40	3.00	
317	186 Crevant-la-Vein	529.375	5084.000	Fva	326	41	3.60	
318	187 Crevant-la-Vein	529.375	5084.000	Fva	326	41	4.10	
319	188 Crevant-la-Vein	529.375	5084.000	Fva	326	41	3.85	
300	170 Culhat-E	526.900	5079.350	Fva	330	40	6.60	
301	171 Culhat-E	526.900	5079.350	Fva	330	40	6.70	
302	172 Culhat-E	526.900	5079.350	Fva	330	40	6.90	
303	173 Culhat-E	526.900	5079.350	Fva	330	40	6.55	
362	230 Les Arrats	521.825	5073.175	Fva	340	36	2.60	
363	231 Les Arrats	521.825	5073.175	Fva	340	36	2.90	
364	232 Les Arrats	521.825	5073.175	Fva	340	36	2.10	
323	Perigere	533.000	5093.500	Fvb	324	55	2.85	
324	Perigere	533.000	5093.500	Fvb	324	55	2.80	
325	Perigere	533.000	5093.500	Fvb	324	55	2.35	
326	Perigere	533.000	5093.500	Fvb	324	55	3.30	
AV9	Perigere	533.000	5093.500	Fvb	324	55	3.50	
AV10	Perigere	533.000	5093.500	Fvb	324	55	3.00	
AV11	Perigere	533.000	5093.500	Fvb	324	55	4.7	
AV96	Neschers	513.200	5049.800	Vcc	466	78	3.00	
AV97	Neschers	513.200	5049.800	Vcc	466	78	4.00	
AV113	Brolac	516.600	5055.200	Fva	375	26	6.00	
AV114	Puel Chauvin	516.600	5055.200	Fva	375	26	6.00	
AV1	Puel Chauvin	533.200	5096.400	Fva	325	53	2.00	
AV2	Puel Chauvin	533.200	5096.400	Fva	325	53	1.50	
AV3	Puel Chauvin	533.200	5096.400	Fva	325	53	4.00	
AV5	Puel Chauvin	533.200	5096.400	Fva	325	53	5.10	
AV180	Puel Chauvin	533.200	5096.400	Fva	325	53	4.70	
AV188	Puel Chauvin	533.200	5096.400	Fva	325	53	4.50	
AV191	Puel Chauvin	533.200	5096.400	Fva	325	53	5.00	
AV464	Puel Chauvin	533.200	5096.400	Fva	325	53	4.00	
AV465	Ornon	528.700	5078.825	Fva	360	64	8.00	
359	Ornon	528.700	5078.825	Fva	360	64	7.50	
360	Ornon	528.700	5078.825	Fva	360	64	2.50	
361	Foulhouze	527.125	5077.475	Fva	362	64	2.60	
343	Foulhouze	527.125	5077.475	Fva	362	64	3.00	
344	Chez Faure	532.000	5085.900	Fva	342	64	3.00	
AV231	Chez Faure	532.000	5085.900	Fva	341	63	2.50	
AV232	Chez Faure	532.000	5085.900	Fva	341	63	2.50	
AV233	Rigaudanches	533.000	5095.100	Fva	325	60	2.50	
AV261	Rigaudanches	533.000	5095.100	Fva	325	60	8.00	
AV262	Rigaudanches	533.000	5095.100	Fva	325	60	8.00	
AV263	Rigaudanches	533.000	5095.100	Fva	325	60	10.00	
AV264	Rigaudanches	533.000	5095.100	Fva	325	60	10.00	
AV265	Rigaudanches	533.000	5095.100	Fva	325	60	10.00	
AV266	Rigaudanches	533.000	5095.100	Fva	325	60	6.00	
AV267	Rigaudanches	533.000	5095.100	Fva	325	60	2.00	
AV268	Rigaudanches	533.000	5085.900	Fva	325	60	4.00	
AV269	Rigaudanches	533.000	5085.900	Fva	325	60	4.00	
AV270	Rigaudanches	533.000	5085.900	Fva	325	60	3.00	
AV271	Rigaudanches	533.000	5085.900	Fva	325	60	10.00	
AV340	Drevoux	535.500	5085.900	Fva	330	66	2.10	
AV341	Drevoux	535.500	5085.900	Fva	330	66	2.00	
AV342	Drevoux	535.500	5079.700	Fva	359	70	2.00	
AV343	Drevoux	535.500	5079.700	Fva	359	70	3.00	
AV344	Drevoux	535.500	5079.700	Fva	359	70	3.00	
AV345	Drevoux	537.900	5079.700	Fva	359	70	3.00	

Sample	Cr	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Rb	Sr	Zr	Nb	Ba	La	Pb
K20	0.11	0.07	0.07	0.06	1.10	<14	49	9	<6	14	121	194	95
AV333	3.60	3.62	0.08	0.07	39	<14	75	<2	<4	<1	12.0	184	257
P205	BaO	V	Cr	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Rb	Sr	Zr	Nb	Ba
AV113	3.01	3.01	0.08	0.07	39	<14	75	<2	<4	<1	12.0	105	176
AV114	3.04	3.04	0.10	0.06	84	<14	60	<2	<4	<1	13.0	108	185
AV10	2.85	2.85	0.11	0.07	64	<14	34	7	<4	<1	15.0	150	44
AV11	3.67	0.11	0.09	0.07	125	<14	47	9	<4	10	16.0	117	343
AV96	3.01	0.09	0.06	0.06	114	25	52	5	<4	<1	12.0	113	276
AV97	4.51	4.51	0.09	0.08	59	<14	49	<2	<4	<1	13.0	126	256
AV113	3.27	0.09	0.07	0.07	122	<14	58	15	40	4	12.0	192	87
AV114	3.49	0.10	0.09	0.07	84	<14	48	3	<4	6	14.0	215	245
AV11	3.92	0.14	0.10	0.10	68	82	5	7	<4	11	11.0	99	70
AV2	4.22	0.09	0.13	0.08	78	82	32	60	10	12.0	18.0	376	228
AV3	4.18	0.08	0.12	0.12	127	82	8	60	10	12.0	128	144	18
AV3	3.63	0.08	0.08	0.08	101	82	44	60	10	12.0	12	289	99
AV180	3.76	0.13	0.10	0.10	68	82	65	60	10	12.0	19.0	393	195
AV188	4.14	0.14	0.09	0.09	64	38	25	19	16	12.0	17.0	192	172
AV191	2.75	0.17	0.09	0.09	189	81	40	39	<6	14.0	14.0	14.0	14.0
AV464	3.51	0.06	0.08	0.11	68	82	45	60	12	12.0	14.0	14.0	14.0
AV465	2.87	0.12	0.12	0.07	68	82	93	60	10	12.0	12	267	105
AV359	2.97	0.16	0.08	0.08	68	73	60	11	12	12.0	14.0	624	194
AV231	2.84	0.08	0.06	0.06	35	32	27	46	6	10	13.0	190	165
AV232	3.30	0.12	0.07	0.07	114	<14	10	10	2	1	12.0	205	132
AV233	3.46	0.15	0.06	0.06	168	26	18	14	<4	43	15.0	240	173
AV262	3.32	0.13	0.07	0.07	170	<14	37	<2	<4	62	12.0	179	142
AV263	4.43	0.15	0.07	0.07	203	<14	55	<2	<4	31	12.0	42	171
AV264	4.33	0.13	0.13	0.13	68	15	45	11	7	19	15.0	98	39
AV232	4.25	0.12	0.13	0.13	112	<14	41	<2	<4	<1	12.0	456	234
AV233	4.09	0.11	0.12	0.12	114	<14	10	10	2	1	12.0	232	133
AV261	4.52	0.15	0.06	0.06	168	26	35	44	8	16.0	115	179	124
AV262	4.45	0.10	0.09	0.09	19	12	24	31	<6	5	12.0	248	248
AV263	4.43	0.12	0.10	0.10	52	39	23	35	11	12.0	17.0	306	154
AV264	4.37	0.18	0.08	0.08	85	42	28	34	<7	7	12.0	129	344
AV265	4.11	0.08	0.09	0.09	21	14	41	48	<6	11	12.0	534	307
AV266	3.35	0.28	0.06	0.06	240	58	34	70	<6	30	12.0	255	217
AV267	3.72	0.15	0.07	0.07	65	27	36	44	8	18.0	115	277	196
AV268	4.05	0.12	0.10	0.10	63	20	32	35	<6	31	12.0	166	90
AV269	3.91	0.12	0.10	0.09	78	23	27	38	<6	15	12.0	187	215
AV270	3.88	0.14	0.07	0.07	225	54	42	34	<6	11	12.0	226	310
AV271	3.56	0.10	0.07	0.07	114	45	32	37	<6	9	11.0	145	180
AV340	3.79	0.09	0.09	0.09	47	35	33	70	<6	17	12.0	113	262
AV341	3.74	0.09	0.08	0.08	67	28	17	24	<6	34	12.0	175	188
AV342	3.78	0.11	0.09	0.09	70	41	34	37	<11	28	12.0	212	227
AV343	3.50	0.09	0.09	0.09	24	19	44	53	7	14	12.0	197	7
AV344	4.00	0.08	0.09	0.09	18	49	50	8	6	12	13.0	130	6
AV345	3.79	0.08	0.09	0.09	18	31	31	55	6	13	12.0	177	97
AV346	3.59	0.14	0.09	0.09	170	73	30	26	15	20	12.0	136	117
AV347	3.99	0.18	0.11	0.11	63	27	38	33	<6	30	12.0	118	435
AV348	3.45	0.08	0.08	0.08	51	26	38	33	14	19	12.0	122	237
AV349	3.53	0.14	0.09	0.09	32	20	32	35	14	14	12.0	237	30

Sample	K2O	P2O5	BaO	V	Cr	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Rb	Sr	Zr	Nb	Ba	La	Pb
AV350	2.93	0.22	0.08	110	52	32	40	12	48	16	104	246	170	4	614	38	27
AV351	3.83	0.09	0.10	41	252	26	32	42	24	15	143	254	121	6	723	21	32
AV352	3.48	0.28	0.07	252	75	42	35	<6	119	19	103	324	319	6	587	58	33
AV178	4.37	0.19	0.12	86	25	29	52	8	47	19	147	403	301	8	945	58	37
AV179	4.22	0.22	0.09	98	43	37	<6	54	54	16	129	397	233	6	781	39	29
AV353	3.76	0.28	0.07	222	44	33	32	7	100	16	113	324	283	6	684	49	29
AV354	3.54	0.23	0.07	230	61	36	31	14	116	18	109	382	346	6	658	63	36
AV355	3.96	0.24	0.10	71	35	20	34	9	15	121	317	153	4	753	32	32	
AV356	3.34	0.29	0.06	302	66	36	26	<6	139	19	98	352	369	11	581	51	30
AV357	4.14	0.11	0.09	63	26	16	21	<6	119	19	21	452	195	4	761	26	31
AV358	3.34	0.21	0.07	106	53	49	14	10	58	18	130	271	184	6	597	31	37
AV359	3.58	0.14	0.08	41	23	34	48	10	17	16	127	248	131	5	670	32	33
AV272	1.40	0.24	0.01	>1000	242	286	<6	597	20	60	97	1024	<2	<24	154	20	20
AV111	2.66	0.21	0.02	244	82	53	60	12	85	17	130	316	383	25	807	66	10
AV112	6.07	0.10	0.09	68	82	52	60	12	25	7	219	135	67	9	1081	60	31
AV89	3.71	0.07	0.06	68	82	50	60	12	17	16	179	131	99	14	804	76	17
AV90	3.54	0.20	0.06	71	82	17	60	12	67	9	166	130	84	9	826	49	18
AV101	3.04	0.27	0.06	201	82	28	60	12	129	23	125	488	365	26	1093	106	9
AV102	5.03	0.17	0.07	78	82	24	60	12	67	17	154	558	431	29	1110	79	15
AV103	4.69	0.18	0.08	141	82	45	60	12	88	20	130	612	674	41	1167	112	15
AV100	2.88	0.19	0.08	78	82	41	60	12	46	8	102	185	96	12	966	45	17
AV49	2.56	0.09	0.07	68	82	52	60	10	17	12	84	258	93	12	898	32	8
AV50	2.53	0.08	0.06	153	49	49	60	15	40	18	90	332	146	20	981	51	16
AV124	3.25	0.15	0.03	227	149	38	60	10	73	15	117	271	169	16	867	63	14
AV58	2.08	0.03	0.03	68	82	107	60	10	12	5	69	54	53	10	361	32	13
AV59	2.51	0.02	0.04	68	82	139	60	10	12	5	79	60	26	4	562	24	9
AV60	2.59	0.03	0.04	68	82	155	60	10	12	7	87	63	46	15	478	31	23
AV61	2.54	0.05	0.05	68	82	85	60	10	12	7	88	54	80	12	490	40	8
314	3.18	0.07	0.07	68	82	60	10	10	12	10	182	155	136	10	993	39	21
315	3.21	0.02	0.07	68	82	60	10	10	12	8	111	105	18	5	739	24	20
316	1.13	0.01	0.01	68	82	60	10	10	12	9	43	51	12	4	320	24	7
AV181	2.98	0.04	0.04	68	82	60	10	10	12	12	147	97	8	6	771	26	25
AV182	2.99	0.04	0.07	68	82	60	10	10	12	12	138	89	4	7	770	16	26
AV183	3.43	0.05	0.05	68	82	60	10	10	12	11	147	144	66	9	971	51	29
AV184	3.66	0.13	0.06	68	82	60	10	10	12	13	101	192	126	12	987	46	40
AV185	3.86	0.07	0.04	68	82	60	10	10	12	10	106	128	98	10	1068	58	38
AV73	4.04	0.13	0.07	68	82	28	60	10	11	17	127	127	380	24	948	80	17
AV74	2.50	0.06	0.07	68	82	73	60	13	12	13	140	90	14	963	50	15	
AV75	2.75	0.09	0.04	68	82	31	60	14	20	8	171	91	114	14	654	65	19
AV5	6.44	0.02	0.04	68	82	81	60	10	12	12	369	69	155	17	562	48	38
AV6	5.36	0.02	0.03	68	82	47	60	10	13	13	285	56	26	13	85	47	31

Sample	K20	P205	Ba0	V	Cr	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Rb	Sr	Zr	Nb	Ba	La	Pb
AV337	4.98	0.05	0.10	<5	6	41	41	16	<3	22	17	176	180	66	7	861	1.4
AV338	4.71	0.08	0.10	14	40	15	27	16	<3	14	154	161	62	<2	724	1.2	
AV339	4.23	0.04	0.08	<5	11	50	56	19	<3	14	178	175	271	11	742	5.6	
AV452	4.66	0.09	0.10	14	22	34	36	6	<3	13	168	177	292	19	785	25	
AV453	4.48	0.11	0.09	17	27	37	44	<6	6	14	135	137	95	5	659	<12	
AV466	3.67	0.06	0.08	<5	10	29	33	<6	<3	10	178	183	217	11	744	3.3	
AV467	4.67	0.09	0.10	16	20	33	39	<6	<3	14	139	145	100	4	633	1.7	
AV468	3.84	0.06	0.09	10	15	76	46	<6	<3	12	193	188	293	18	675	1.6	
AV472	4.79	0.11	0.08	44	36	28	36	<6	15	14	193	188	293	18	675	5.0	
AV477	4.81	0.10	0.09	21	25	31	35	<6	7	15	196	184	261	16	712	4.1	
AV428	4.98	0.09	0.09	28	33	43	46	19	17	211	189	227	13	690	4.1		
AV429	4.40	0.11	0.09	60	40	42	46	<6	26	15	170	181	250	15	679	6.2	
AV430	4.72	0.08	0.08	23	20	40	41	<6	<3	16	199	180	255	14	673	3.3	
AV405	5.40	0.11	0.09	30	37	29	41	<6	14	15	255	165	301	18	722	4.6	
AV305	5.45	0.09	0.10	29	33	43	56	<6	25	14	258	151	204	10	700	2.1	
AV306	4.90	0.11	0.12	85	53	29	40	<6	34	13	233	153	342	22	947	4.8	
AV307	4.87	0.09	0.09	26	24	30	36	<6	<3	17	206	174	235	5	695	2.3	
AV373	3.86	0.04	0.08	15	13	39	41	<6	<3	12	149	148	99	3	600	25	
AV374	5.04	0.10	0.09	36	31	38	12	<6	17	16	230	180	292	18	696	5.9	
AV375	4.84	0.11	0.10	40	33	34	41	<6	<3	20	14	206	170	274	18	729	6.1
AV376	3.99	0.09	0.08	25	24	32	43	<6	<3	13	151	163	77	<2	625	<12	
AV377	4.20	4.56	0.07	68	82	30	60	10	12	16	165	199	78	7	737	<7	
AV378	4.10	4.38	0.13	0.09	101	82	25	60	10	100	100	24	216	246	471	25	
AV20	4.22	4.10	0.06	0.06	68	82	16	60	10	12	15	143	172	50	4	687	2.8
AV21	4.75	0.07	0.10	68	82	93	60	10	12	13	198	204	103	15	1066	6.8	
AV51	3.48	0.05	0.05	0.10	68	82	98	60	10	12	12	175	183	26	8	1027	2.4
AV52	2.98	0.12	0.10	68	82	40	60	10	12	15	107	219	40	7	937	5.2	
AV53	3.04	0.08	0.08	68	82	41	60	10	12	15	110	233	222	22	1082	1.7	
AV54	3.12	0.06	0.09	68	82	61	60	10	12	17	109	217	134	13	945	8.3	
79	5.17	0.07	0.08	68	82	48	60	10	12	13	96	207	48	8	1012	3.4	
430	4.66	0.05	0.05	68	82	27	60	10	12	11	179	209	31	4	865	<7	
431	4.50	0.07	0.07	68	82	32	60	10	12	16	167	202	71	7	729	2.3	
432	4.19	0.05	0.05	68	82	28	60	10	12	17	156	214	111	7	757	2.0	
410	4.43	0.11	0.08	68	82	58	60	10	12	12	13	177	44	8	710	3.9	
411	4.38	0.09	0.07	68	82	18	60	10	12	17	153	224	136	9	802	<7	
412	4.42	0.10	0.09	68	82	23	60	10	12	17	169	212	127	8	737	2.2	
357	4.07	0.07	0.08	68	82	35	60	10	12	13	146	215	91	5	831	2.4	
419	3.50	0.05	0.06	68	82	32	60	10	12	12	167	177	200	13	927	6.8	
358	4.38	0.03	0.07	68	82	53	60	10	12	16	178	187	45	6	840	1.4	
218	4.22	0.04	0.06	68	82	25	60	10	12	12	133	177	44	<4	840	1.4	
416	4.09	0.06	0.06	68	82	23	60	10	12	15	134	216	47	6	669	1.0	
417	4.29	0.11	0.07	77	82	40	60	10	12	17	173	246	195	11	775	3.0	
418	4.22	0.08	0.06	68	82	15	60	10	12	14	151	230	114	12	715	3.0	
419	3.50	0.05	0.07	68	82	32	60	10	12	16	190	200	48	5	685	<7	
AV57	2.62	0.05	0.07	68	82	75	60	10	12	15	86	179	83	14	859	5.4	
353	3.99	0.09	0.06	68	82	33	60	10	12	15	135	163	25	<4	853	4.6	
354	4.26	0.05	0.05	68	82	51	60	10	12	18	185	205	114	10	753	2.1	
355	3.87	0.05	0.05	68	82	60	60	10	12	17	173	169	52	8	759	2.9	
356	4.53	0.05	0.07	68	82	28	60	10	12	15	215	215	54	5	853	9.9	
413	4.76	0.06	0.07	68	82	22	60	10	12	18	166	178	114	4	749	3.2	
414	4.53	0.06	0.07	68	82	18	60	10	12	15	181	174	80	6	747	1.7	
415	3.77	0.06	0.06	68	82	23	60	10	12	12	135	134	32	<4	649	<7	
AV19	4.14	0.04	0.04	68	82	40	60	10	12	13	143	135	31	9	1000	3.3	
AV55	4.88	0.06	0.14	68	82	48	60	10	12	17	311	269	22	22	1467	6.1	

Sample labnr	Location	x-coord	y-coord	TerraceAlt	Relalt	depth	Upstr	Median	SiO2	TiO2	Al2O3	Fe2O3	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na2O
AV56	Brugeailles	557.90	5018.70	Fw	550	15.0	2.00	68.0	500	75.54	0.16	14.17	0.54	0.01	0.18	0.80
AV16	Les Raveaux	536.30	5078.20	Fwd	320	40.0	3.00	17.6	1000	80.17	0.18	11.38	0.81	0.01	0.31	0.20
AV18	Les Gaillards	536.30	5080.50	Fwd	310	35.0	3.00	15.8	500	82.70	0.09	7.58	0.20	0.00	0.10	0.64
AV22	Chamoneil	535.00	5082.10	Fwd	308	35.0	2.00	14.0	1000	83.33	0.29	9.09	0.94	0.02	0.32	0.18
AV23	Chamoneil	535.00	5082.10	Fwd	308	35.0	2.10	14.0	1400	84.74	0.22	8.84	0.79	0.01	0.28	0.14
AV24	Chamoneil	535.00	5082.10	Fwd	308	35.0	2.30	14.0	1000	80.06	0.31	10.84	1.06	0.02	0.36	0.23
426	128 Rapine	535.90	5076.50	Fwd	350	62.0	0.68	19.5	1000	85.05	0.14	6.95	0.24	<0.00	0.08	<0.00
427	129 Rapine	535.90	5076.50	Fwd	350	62.0	0.82	19.5	2000	84.72	0.13	8.71	0.22	<0.00	0.08	0.72
428	130 Rapine	535.90	5076.50	Fwd	350	62.0	0.85	19.5	600	82.88	0.13	8.48	0.85	<0.00	0.07	<0.00
429	131 Rapine	535.90	5076.50	Fwd	350	62.0	0.85	19.5	420	81.19	0.18	10.76	0.74	0.00	0.30	1.27
137	216 Rapine	535.90	5076.50	Fwd	350	62.0	0.85	19.5	1600	84.06	0.04	8.25	0.22	<0.01	0.06	<0.01
423	125 Bourson	538.20	5074.75	Fwd	362	70.0	1.70	22.5	420	86.33	0.27	6.41	0.43	0.00	0.10	<0.0
424	126 Bourson	538.20	5074.75	Fwd	362	70.0	1.60	22.5	1000	98.08	0.04	6.14	0.15	<0.00	0.08	<0.00
425	127 Bourson	538.20	5074.75	Fwd	362	70.0	1.90	22.5	300	87.21	0.03	6.05	0.15	<0.00	0.07	<0.00
136	215 Le Pialoux	537.60	5068.80	Fsd	403	100.0	1.60	26.5	900	87.68	0.06	7.73	0.18	<0.01	0.09	<0.01
407	109 Le Pialoux	537.60	5068.80	Fsd	403	100.0	1.60	26.5	420	83.83	0.12	9.06	0.26	<0.01	0.14	<0.01
408	110 Le Pialoux	537.60	5068.80	Fsd	403	100.0	1.70	26.5	600	86.96	<0.02	6.31	0.08	<0.01	0.06	<0.01
409	111 Le Pialoux	537.60	5068.80	Fsd	403	100.0	2.00	26.5	1400	86.26	<0.02	7.10	0.13	<0.01	0.08	<0.01
111	208 Chau La Gardé	535.35	5070.85	Frd	415	110.0	2.00	24.0	1500	89.00	0.06	5.25	0.15	<0.01	0.07	<0.01

Sample	K2O	P2O5	BaO	V	Cr	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Rb	Sr	Zr	Nb	Ba	La	Pb
AV56	4.69	0.03	0.10	68	82	76	60	10	12	19	205	382	123	16	1074	57	30
AV16	4.71	0.05	0.09	68	82	45	60	10	12	15	210	177	54	13	1125	24	34
AV18	4.53	0.04	0.09	68	82	67	60	10	12	9	177	153	33	7	1055	54	22
AV22	3.94	0.04	0.08	68	82	27	60	10	12	13	147	145	111	17	941	51	22
AV23	3.90	0.04	0.08	68	82	23	60	10	12	10	146	130	33	10	916	49	20
AV24	4.33	0.05	0.09	68	82	35	60	11	12	13	183	170	82	12	1080	43	26
426	4.38	0.05	0.07	68	82	12	60	10	12	11	144	128	234	12	859	33	12
427	5.22	0.02	0.06	68	82	46	60	10	12	15	200	117	20	4	671	<7	26
428	4.65	0.05	0.07	68	82	19	60	10	12	12	186	125	56	6	727	7	26
429	5.04	0.04	0.06	68	82	14	60	10	15	15	208	145	57	7	695	<7	26
137	4.90	0.03	0.06	68	82	19	60	10	12	11	170	122	16	4	647	<7	29
423	4.09	0.04	0.07	68	82	41	60	10	12	13	128	121	118	12	726	40	20
424	3.94	0.04	0.06	68	82	43	60	10	12	10	134	124	74	7	686	12	20
425	4.14	0.03	0.07	68	82	40	60	10	12	7	131	122	56	5	691	<7	14
136	4.32	0.03	0.06	68	82	14	60	10	12	11	156	123	13	<4	638	13	18
407	4.71	0.04	0.08	68	82	32	60	10	12	12	180	134	46	6	708	24	23
408	3.87	0.03	0.06	68	82	30	60	10	12	13	135	112	9	5	623	13	25
409	3.85	0.03	0.06	68	82	23	60	10	12	13	134	120	15	4	617	8	14
111	3.21	0.03	0.04	68	82	21	60	10	12	8	116	89	83	8	497	34	11

APPENDIX II

```

(* ****
(* ****
(* Module Global: definition and declaration of the global
variables of the LIMTER program
(*
(* - Time
    - INTR RIVER
    - Entity LANDSCAPE
    - The processes
        - The first version as TERRAS program 21-05-1987
        - Authors TERRAS version: A. Veldkamp en S.E.J.W. Vermuelen
        - Date first LIMTER program 02-05-1980,
        - DEFINITE VERSION (02) 30-05-1990 copyright A. Veldkamp
(* ****
(* Constant variables which have be determined for each
simulation:
(* - Initial relief: ZMID is initial altitude valley floor
    - INTHOOTE initial altitude highest terrace
(* - Scale of LANDSCAPE:
    - XHETER width of LANDSCAPE in kilometres
    - YHETER length of LANDSCAPE in kilometres
    - ZHETER max altitude in metres
(* - TECTONISM:
    - QTEKJEM is uplift rate in m/ky
    - QTEKHOEK in UNEQUAL_UPLIFT rate in m/ky
(* - Discharge Allier:
    - PRCC, EGC, TILT
    - QGEM is average discharge in m3/ky
    - QAMPL is amplitude in discharge in m3/ky
(* - Sediment load Allier:
    - INUGEM average input sediment load m3/ky
    - INLAMP amplitude sediment input load m3/ky
(* - Periodical cycles of Milankovitch curve:
    - PRGCC, EGC, TILT
(* - Amplitudes of Milankovitch curve:
    - A,B,C
(* ****
[ENVIRONMENT('GLO.BAL')MODULE GLOBAL;

CONST
    TMAX=60; (* ending time in ky of simulation
    THIN=1; (* starting time of simulation in ky
              (* THIN <= simulation time (ky) <= TMAX
    XMAX=100; (* amount of grid cells in width relief
    YMAX=100; (* amount of grid cells in length relief
    ZMAX=500; (* amount of maximum grid cells in altitude
    XMIN=-1; (* XMIN <- X <- XMAX
    YMIN=-1; (* YMIN <- Y <- YMAX
    ZMIN=-1; (* ZMIN <- Z <- ZMAX
    XMD=30; (* The centre of the Valley, this is where the
              (* Allier flows and where the lowest place of
              (* the cross-section is situated.
(* ****
TYPE
    (*
    error notifications
        (* ZETMIN- true if Z - ZMIN at XMID,YMAX
        (* ZETMAX- true if Z - ZMAX at XMID,YMIN
        (* DWAERD- true if XMID is not the lowest place
                  (* in a cross-section during the erosion process.
        (* DWARSED- true if XMID is not the lowest place
                  (* in a cross-section during sedimentation
        (* DUMERO- true if DUMEROE the amount of
(* ****

```

```

(* remaining erosion capacity is too large *)
*)

FOURTRJ - (ZETMIN, ZETMAX, DWAERD, DWAERD, GRAY);

VAR
  X, (* X is cross-section in grid cells *)
  Y, (* Y is longitudinal profile in grid cells *)
  Z, (* Z is altitude in grid cells *)
  OUT, (* erosion capacity remainder, takes care for *)
        (* gradual erosion or sedimentation *)
  GLACIAL, (* variable to determine length of a glacial in ky *)
  TID; INTEGER; (* TIME in thousands of years (ky) *)
(* Entity RIVER with Attributes *)
  RIVIER : RECORD
    Q: REAL; (* discharge in m3/sec *)
    INLAST: REAL; (* input sediment load in m3/sec *)
    CHEM: INTEGER; (* Geochemical class sediment *)
    MEANDER: BOOLEAN; (* River has meandering *)
    (* characteristics *)
    VERVILDERD: BOOLEAN; (* River was braided *)
    (* characteristics *)
    S: REAL; (* mean grain size sediment in mm *)
    BREDETE: REAL; (* slope of flooded plain in % *)
    MAXLAST: REAL; (* width of flooded plain in % *)
    QERSOSIE: REAL; (* Max load of river in m3/sec *)
    END;
(* Entity LANDSCAPE with attributes *)
  LANDSCHAFT: RECORD
    QIEKTONTIK: REAL; (* Uplift rate in m/ky *)
    HOOGTE : INTEGER; (* difference in altitude between *)
      (* highest terrace level XMIN, YMIN *)
      (* and riverbed (XMID, YMID) in grid *)
    DALBREEDTE: INTEGER; (* valley width in grid cells *)
    S: INTEGER; (* Slope valley downstream in grids *)
    QERSOSIE: INTEGER; (* Erosion for a timestep of one ky *)
    (* in grid cells *)
    END;

  RELIEF: ARRAY[XMIN..XMAX, YMIN..YMAX] OF
    RECORD
      ZET: INTEGER; (* altitude of a grid cell *)
      STRATIG: PACKED ARRAY[1..10] OF TMIN..TMAX;
        (* stratigraphy for each grid cell *)
      GEOCHEM: PACKED ARRAY[1..10] OF CHEMIN..CHMAX;
        (* chemostratigraphy for each grid *)
    END;
(* The PROCESSES *)
  TEKTONIK,
  EROSION,
  INSTILLING,
  KANT,
  SEDIMENTATIE: BOOLEAN; (* error variable *)
  FOUT: FOURTRJ; (* error variable *)
*)
END (* GLOBAL *).

```

END (* GLOBAL *).

```

(* PROGRAM LINTER: calculates relief changes over a timespan of *)
(* 0.6 Ma caused by fluvial erosion and sedimentation as a result of climate and tectonism, *)
(* with timespans of 1000 years (ky) *)
(* input: Gradual but unequal Tectonism *)
(* Climate controlled discharge and sediment load inputs *)
(* Output: RELIEF1: Cross-section development in time *)
(* RELIEF2: simulated relief; x,y-coordinates *)
(* ULTRISTRATIG: stratigraphy of cross-sections in time *)
(* ULTRISTRATIS: surface stratigraphy of RELIEF2 *)
(* LOGBOOK: values of the global variables *)
(* UIFTPUT: errors during simulation *)
(* GROCHENIG: chemostratigraphy cross-sections RELIEF1 *)
(* GROCHENIS: surface chemostratigraphy of RELIEF2 *)
(* Date First TERRAS version: 19 maart 1987 *)
(* Authors TERRAS: S.E.J.W. Vermeulen and A. Veldkamp *)
(* Date First Allier version: 21-05-1990 *)
(* Author LINTER: A. VELDKAMP *)
(* VERSION LINTER D2 COPYRIGHT A. VELDKAMP *)
(* program characteristics: *)
(* output files: RELIEF1.DAT *)
(* RELIEF2.DAT *)
(* ULTRISTRATIG.DAT *)
(* LOGBOOK.DAT *)
(* ULTRISTRATIS.DAT *)
(* UIFTPUT.DAT *)
(* CHEMIS.DAT *)
(* CHEMIC.DAT *)
(* Amount of procedures: five *)
(* INHERIT('GLD.BAL')) PROGRAM TERRAS(RELIEF1,RELIEF2,ULTRISTRATIG,LOGBOOK,
GROCHENIS, GROCHENIG, SINNS, ULTRISTRATIS, UIFTPUT);
VAR
  (* file variables *)
  RELIEF1, (* Cross-section at y=90 for each UIFTMAX *)
  (* timesteps *)
  RELIEF2, (* RELIEF X,Y,Z for each UIFTMAX timesteps *)
  (* Stratigraphy of RELIEF1 *)
  ULTRISTRATIG, (* Stratigraphy of RELIEF2 *)
  ULTRISTRATIS, (* Global variables for each timestep *)
  LOGBOOK, (* Local and input variables for each timestep *)
  SINNS, (* Chemostratigraphy at RELIEF2 *)
  GROCHENIS, (* Chemostratigraphy at RELIEF1 *)
  GROCHENIG, (* Error notifications during simulation *)
  UIFTPUT: (* Total amount of uplift in grid cells *)
  TEXT; (* Local variables *)
  ROOGTE, (* Total amount of unequal_uplift in metres *)
  TERTILT, (* Total amount of unequal_uplift in metres *)
*)

```

```

VERHANG, (* Slope of river in grid cells *)          *)
    REROSIE, (* sum of LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE en DUMEROSIE *)
    DUMEROSIE, (* residue of LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE *)
    SOMEROSIE, (* cumulated erosion during the simulation in *)
    SMIN,   (* grid cells *)
    XBEREDTEMIN, (* smallest X-coordinate according VERRANG *)
    XBEREDTEMAX, (* in grid cells; control variable *)
    UT1L,UT12,UT13, (* large X-coordinates; control variable *)
    TEL1,TEL2,TEL3, (* loop counters for RIVIER.BREDETE *)
    ZVALLET,   (* Altitude of valley scarp in grid cells *)
    LUI,      (* altitude valley floor in grid cells *)
    I,        (* test variable - REROSIE *)
    K: INTEGER; (* prevents never ending loop, 15 mei 1987 *)
    DUM,     (* calculates landschap.QEROSIE.rivier.QEROSIE *)
    DALS,    (* slope valley floor in m/a *)
    VORNCONST, (* constant determines river characteristic *)
    QDUD,    (* river discharge at time = t-1 m3/sec *)
    QUDINLAST, (* river.inlast at time = t-1 *)
    PI,      (* constant *)
    HOEK,    (* counter of unequal-uplift *)
    QTERRHOOGTE, (* Total amount of LANDSCHAP.QTERHOOGTE *)
    REAL:    (* *)
    QUDIFORM, (* river.vom at time = t-1; if true than *)
    RAND,    (* Allier is meandering *)
    AF,      (* If true than eroding valley slope *)
    GREN,    (* If true than landscape s - rivier.s *)
    GREN,    (* simulation is stopped *)
    DUMMY:   (* Is always true during simulation *)
    BOOLIAN; (* test variable *)
    PAD:ARRAY[1..45] OF INTEGER; (* test variable *)
    ++++++*****+
    ++++++*****+
    ++++++*****+
    +procedure: FLUSS
    +(* Calculates the attributes of entity RIVER and translates *)
    +(* these properties to landscape properties in grid cell units *)
    +(* local variables:DALS,VORNCONST,DEM *)
    +(* ++++++*****+
    +(* procedure: RIVER
    +(* Calculates slope-valley in grid cells to slope *)
    +(* of valley in w/m. slope of valley is not within *)
    +(* domain than valley slope is LFL4 *)
    +(* DALS := LANDSCHAP.S * ZWETER/(ZWETER + ZMAX);
    +IF DALS < 1E-4 THEN DALS := 1E-4;
    +(* 2 If RIVER at time is t-1 is meandering than *)
    +END;
    +begin
    +(* slope of river is 0.5 slope valley *)
    +IF QUDIFORM = TRUE THEN
    +BEGIN
    +PAD[6] := 1;
    +DALS := 0.5 * DALS;
    +END;
    +(* 3 calculates discharge and input load of the *)
    +(* RIVER in m3/sec. QGEN and QAR determine the *)
    +(* domain of both discharge and input load *)
    +(* PRECC, EGC, TLLT describes Milankovitch curve *)
    +(* INLAST is / 2 out of phase with discharge *)
    +RIVIER.Q := QGEN + QAMP/((A+B+C)*(A*STM(2*PI*TLLD/PRECC) +
    +B*SIN(2*PI*TLLD/PRECC) + C*SIN(2*PI*TLLD/PRECC) +
    +RIVIER.INLAST := INLAMP + INLAMP/(A+B+C)*(A*COS(2*PI*TLLD/PRECC) +
    +B*COS(2*PI*TLLD/PRECC) + C*COS(2*PI*TLLD/PRECC));
    +IF DUMMY THEN
    +BEGIN
    +PAD[3] := 1;
    +(* 4.1 determine RIVER characteristic *)
    +(* debit at t-1 ~QUNQ and inlast at t-1~QUDINL *)
    +(* means increase *)
    +(* - means decrease *)
    +(* If Q- and Inlast+ then verwilderd (braided) *)
    +(* If Q+ and Inlast- then meander (meandering) *)
    +(* If Q+ and Inlast+ then no change in *)
    +(* RIVER characteristics, *)
    +(* If Q- and Inlast- then no change in *)
    +(* RIVER characteristics *)
    +(* 4.1.1 If Q- and Inlast+ then verwilderd *)
    +IF (QUDQ - RIVIER.Q > 0) AND
    +(QUDINLAST - RIVIER.INLAST < 0) THEN
    +BEGIN
    +RAD18] := 1;
    +RIVER.VERWILDERD := TRUE;
    +END (*IF* );
    +(* 4.1.2 If Q+ and Inlast- then meander *)
    +IF (QUDQ - RIVIER.Q < 0) AND
    +(QUDINLAST - RIVIER.INLAST > 0) THEN
    +BEGIN
    +RAD18] := 1;
    +RIVER.MEANDER := TRUE;
    +END (*IF* );
    +(* 4.1.3 If Q+ and Inlast+ then vom of t-1 *)
    +IF (QUDQ - RIVIER.Q < 0) AND
    +(QUDINLAST - RIVIER.INLAST < 0) THEN
    +BEGIN
    +PAD[4] := 1;
    +IF RIVER.INLAST < INLAST THEN OUTFORM := TRUE;
    +IF RIVER.INLAST > INLAST THEN OUTFORM := FALSE;
    +PAD[14] := 1;
    +IF OUTFORM = TRUE THEN
    +BEGIN
    +(* 2 If RIVER at time is t-1 is meandering than *)
    +END;
    +PAD[14] := 1;
    +END;

```

```

RIVIER.MEANDER := TRUE;
END (* if *);
ELSE
BEGIN
PAD[9] := 1;
RIVIER.VERWILDERD := TRUE;
END (* if *);
(* 4.1.4 If Q- and Inlast- then vorm of t-1
IF (OUDQ * RIVIER.Q > 0) AND
(OUDINLAST - RIVIER.INLAST > 0) THEN
BEGIN
IF RIVIER.INLAST < INLEM THEN OUDVORM := TRUE;
IF OUDVORM - TRUE THEN
PAD[5] := 1;
RIVIER.MEANDER := TRUE;
END
ELSE
BEGIN
PAD[15] := 1;
RIVIER.MEANDER := TRUE;
END;
PAD[10] := 1;
RIVIER.VERWILDERD := TRUE;
END;
END (* if dummy *);
(* 5.0 *)
(* Determination of duration of a Glacial. If Glacial is
(* longer than 10,000 years a larger sediment flux is,
(* released into the Aller which is FLOX times normal,
(* and has compositional class 4
IF RIVIER.VERWILDERD THEN
BEGIN
GLACIAAL := GLACIAAL +1;
RIVIER.CHEM := 3;
END;
(* 6 If meander, calculate slope, maxlast and the
(* width of the floodplain
IF RIVIER.MEANDER = TRUE THEN
BEGIN
PAD[16] := 1;
(* 6.1 control: If meander than verwilderd=false
RIVIER.VERWILDERD := FALSE;
(* 6.2 determine grain size in mm
RIVIER.M50 := 0.35;
(* 6.3 per oudvorm on true; meander
OUDVORM := TRUE;
(* 6.4 calculate slope of river surface in m/m
(* use formula from Bloom 1977
RIVIER.M5 := 2 * 0.005 * (RIVIER.Q/0.028)**(-0.37);
(* 6.5 Discharge increases in the simulated LAND-
SCAPE due to rain. This causes an increase
of 1 per cent m3/sec for the simulated area
RIVIER.Q := RIVIER.Q + 0.01*RIVIER.Q;
(* 6.6 calculates the maximum load of a meandering
(* RIVER. The constants are from Lit.
RIVIER.MAXLAST := MB * RIVIER.Q * DALS / RIVIER.M50 +
MS * (RIVIER.Q)**2 + MD * RIVIER.Q;
(* 6.7 Calculates the river-width in metres
RIVIER.BREEDTE := 15 * (RIVIER.Q/0.028)**(0.5);
END;
(* 7 If verwilderd (braided) calculate slope and
(* and maxlast as in 6
IF RIVIER.VERWILDERD = TRUE THEN
BEGIN
PAD[11] := 1;
RIVIER.M50 := 2.0;
OUDVORM := FALSE;
RIVIER.S := 0.325 * (RIVIER.Q/0.028)**(-0.56);
RIVIER.Q := RIVIER.Q + 0.01*RIVIER.Q;
RIVIER.MAXLAST := VB * RIVIER.Q * DALS / RIVIER.M50 +
VS * (RIVIER.Q)**2 + VD * RIVIER.Q;
END;
(* 8 Convert River slope into grid cells
VERHANG := TRUNC( RIVIER.S * YMETER * 2MAX / 2METER );
(* 9 Convert rivier.breedte into grid cells
LANDSCHAP.DALBREEDTE := TRUNC( RIVIER.BREEDTE * XMAX / XMETER );
(* 10 Calculate the amount to erode in m3/sec
RIVIER.QEROSE := (RIVIER.MAXLAST - RIVIER.INLAST);
(* 5 determine OUDQ and OUDINLAST
OUDQ := RIVIER.Q;
OUDINLAST := RIVIER.INLAST;
END;

```

```

(* 11 Convert QEROSIE into grid cells per time step *)
(* If qerosie > 0 then erosion *) 
(* If qerosie < 0 then sedimentation *) 
DUM := (3.154E10 * RIVIER.QEROSIE) / (KAMETER/YMAX * YMEET/YMAX * 2METER/2MAX);

LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE := TRUNG (DUM) +DUD;
IF ABS(LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE) < ABS(LANDSCHAP.DALREEDTE * 100) THEN
BEGIN
    QUD := LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE;
    LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE := 1;
END;
IF ABS(LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE) > ABS(LANDSCHAP.DALREEDTE * 100) THEN
BEGIN
    QUD := 0;
END;
BEGIN
    QUD := 0;
END;

IF LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE > 0 THEN
BEGIN
    EROSION := TRUE;
END;
IF LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE < 0 THEN
BEGIN
    SEDIMENTATIE := TRUE;
END;
END; (* procedure river *);

(* 1. Tectonism as uplift rate in m/1000 years (ky) *)
LANDSCHAP.QTEKTONIEK := QTEKGEM;
QTEHOOGTE := QTEKGEM + LANDSCHAP.QTEKTONIEK;

(* 2. calculate the sum of uplift for a timestep in *)
(*   in grid cells *)
HOOGTE := TRUNG(QTEHOOGTE);
HOEK := HOEK + QTEHOEK;

TETILT := TRUNG(HOEK);
(* 3. If the incision w/timestep is less then the *)
(*   amount of uplift then tectonism *)
(* is true. These differences in uplift and inci- *)
(* sion are determined relative to the upper *)
(*   terrace level. *)

```

BEGIN IF LANDSCHAP.HOOGTE < HOOGTE + INHOOGTE THEN

```

    PAD[1] := 1;
    TEKTONIEK := TRUE;
END; (* 4. If altitude of highest terrace is less then *)
(*   the initial altitude + tectonism(uplift) then *)
(*   rise all grid cells with one grid unit (1 m) *)
IF RELIEF(XMIN,YMIN).ZET < 2MID + HOOGTE THEN
BEGIN
    FOR Y := YMIN TO YMAX DO
        BEGIN
            PAD[2] := 1;
            FOR X := XMID TO XMID+2 DO
                BEGIN
                    RELIEF(X,Y).ZET := RELIEF[X,Y].ZET + 1;
                END;
            FOR X := XMID+3 TO XMAX DO
                BEGIN
                    RELIEF[X,Y].ZET := RELIEF[X,Y].ZET + 1 + TEKTIKT;
                END;
            IF TEKTIKT > 1 THEN HOEK := 0;
        END;
    END; (* procedure opheffing *)
END; (* procedure BLOK: determines relief changes for each timestep *)
(* input: The entity LANDSCAPE *)
(* processes *)
(* local variables *)
(* output: The entity LANDSCAPE *)
(* local variables : XRREDITMIN, XRREDITMAX, *)
(* LUI.SMIN, TELL.K.ZRAND, ZVALLEI, AF.RAND, *)
(* LABEL 999: then relief is changed *)
(* LANDSCHAP.QEROSIE than the erosion or *)
(* sedimentation process stops *)
(* local procedures: HAALEENLAAGECG: erodes a cross-section *)
(* ZETELLAAGECG: sedimentates a cross-section *)
(* exit label *)
LABEL 999; (* exit label *)

```

PROCEDURE HAALEENLAAGECG;

```

BEGIN
    (* 1. erode to the left valley scarp and erode then *)
    (* to the right valley scarp *)
    FOR TELL := 1 TO 2 DO

```

```

BEGIN
    (* 2 RAND indicates the valley scarp, at start is *)
    (* RAND false *)
    RAND := FALSE;
    PAD[23] := 1;

    (* 3 XMID is middle of valley where eroding starts *)
    X := XMID;
    K := 1;

    (* 4 If erosion has reached right valley scarp move *)
    (* then one grid cell down stream xmjd = xmjd + 1 *)
    IF TELL1 = 2 THEN
    BEGIN
        PAD[24] := 1;
        K := 1;
        X := XMID - K;
    END;

    (* 5 Search for valley scarp or until the calcula *)
    (* ted rivier.bredete is reached *)
    REPEAT
        PAD[25] := 1;

        (* 5.1 determine altitude of scarp *)
        Z := RELIEF[X,Y].ZET;

        (* 5.2 If z=1 then error and exit
        IF Z=1 THEN
        BEGIN
            PAD[43] := 1;
            FOUT := ZETMIN;
            GOTO 999;
        END
        ELSE
        BEGIN
            PAD[26] := 1;
        END
    END;

    (* 5.3 If insinjding (incision) lower relief with *)
    (* one grid unit (1 m). this grid cell is re- *)
    (* moved from the system. Change also the *)
    (* stratigraphy and the chemostratigraphy from *)
    (* the eroded grid cell. and decrease the value *)
    (* of erosive with one grid cell one *)
    IF INSINJING THEN
    BEGIN
        PAD[27] := 1;
        RELIEF[X,Y].ZET := 2.1;
        FOR TEL2 := 1 TO 9 DO
            RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[TEL2] := RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[TEL2+1];
        RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[10] := 1;
        FOR TEL2 := 1 TO 9 DO
            RELIEF[X,Y].GEOCHEM[TEL2] := RELIEF[X,Y].GEOCHEM[TEL2+1];
        RELIEF[X,Y].GEOCHEM[10] := 1;
        REROSIE := REROSIE - 1;
    END (* if *);
    END (* else *);
END;

```

(* 5.4 shift x positions

- (* check the valleirand (valley scarp) and the
 - (* valleiboden (valley bottom)
 - X := K-K;

IF RELIEF[X,Y].ZET > Z THEN RAND := TRUE;

IF RELIEF[X,Y].ZET < Z THEN FOUT := FMARSEN0;

UNTIL RAND OR (A-KRREDITIV) OR (X = KREEDITEAK);

(* 6 If RAND (lateral erosion) remove the valley

- (* scarp (valleirand)
 - IF RAND AND KANT THEN
 BEGIN
 PAD[28] := 1;
 (* 6.1 determine valley scarp ZZLAND. determine the
 - (* the altitude of valley bottom ZVALLEI
 - ZVALLEI := RELIEF[X+K,Y].ZET;

(* 6.2 Remove the valley scarp ZZLAND
 FOR Z := ZZLAND DOWNTO ZVALLEI + 1 DO
 BEGIN
 (* 6.3 check if z > 1
 IF Z > 1 THEN
 BEGIN
 PAD[29] := 1;
 (* 6.4 see for 5.3

- BELIEF[X,Y].ZET := Z-1;
 FOR TEL2 := 1 TO 9 DO
 RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[TEL2] := BELIEF[X,Y].STRATIC[TEL2+1];
 RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[10] := 1;
 FOR TEL2 := 1 TO 9 DO
 RELIEF[X,Y].GEOCHEM[TEL2] := BELIEF[X,Y].GEOCHEM[TEL2+1];
 RELIEF[X,Y].GEOCHEM[10] := 1;
 END (* if *);
 END (* for *);
 END (* if rand and kant *);
 END (* for *);
 END
 END
 END
 END (* procedure haaleenlaagweg *);

(* procedure ZETENLAAGLJ
 (* Add_a_layer_to_it *)
 (* sedimentas one cross-section *)
 (* **** */

```

(* 1 This procedure has an almost exactly similar *)
(* structures as the procedure HALLENLAGEG see *)
(* for more explanation that procedure. The major *)
(* difference is that this procedures adds new *)
(* grid cells while the other removes them *)
FOR TELL := 1 TO 2 DO
BEGIN
  RAND := FALSE;
  PAD[36] := 1;
  X := XHID;
  K := 1;
  IF TELL = 2 THEN
BEGIN
  PAD[37] := 1;
  K := -1;
  X := XHID - K;
END;
REPEAT
PAD[38] := 1;
Z := RELIEF[X,Y].ZET;
(* 5.2 If highest terrace equals ZMAX then exit *)
IF RELIEF[XMIN,YMIN].ZET > ZMAX THEN
BEGIN
  PAD[44] := 1;
  FOUT := ZETMAX;
  GOTO 999;
END
ELSE
BEGIN
PAD[39] := 1;
(* 5.3 Increase grid cell with one unit (1 m) this *)
(* new grid cell has the age of the time *)
(* step and the lithostratigraphy of the class *)
(* which is deposited that time step *)
RELIEF[X,Y].ZET := RELIEF[X,Y].ZET + 1;
FOR TEL2 := 10 DOWNTO 2 DO
  RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[TEL2]->RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[TEL2-1];
  RELIEF[X,Y].STRATG[1] := YLID;
  FOR TEL2 := 10 DOWNTO 2 DO
    RELIEF[X,Y].GROCHEN[TEL2]->RELIEF[X,Y].GROCHEN[TEL2-1];
    RELIEF[X,Y].GROCHEN[1] := RIVER.CHEN;
    REROSIE := REROSIE + 1;
    X := X-K;
    IF RELIEF[X,Y].ZET > Z+1 THEN RAND := TRUE;
    IF RELIEF[X,Y].ZET < Z THEN RAND := DIARSED;
  END (* else *);
  UNTIL RAND OR (X-KEREDDEMIN) OR (X-KEREDDEMAX);
END (* for *);

(* 6 If erosion = 0 then exit *)
IF REROSIE > 0 THEN GOTO 999;
END; (* zetelenlaagbi *)

```

```

(* **** begin block ****)
(* begin blok *)
(* **** begin block ****)
BEGIN (* blok *)
(* 1. put AF on false *)
*)

AF := FALSE;

PAD[35] := 1;
(* 2. determine the total amount to erode including *)
(* the remaining erosion-apacity of the prece- *)
(* ding timestep *)
(* cannot be wider than 94 grid cells. *)
SOMEROSIE := SONEROSIE + LANDSCHAFT.QEROSIE;
REROSIE := LANDSCHAFT.QEROSIE + DUMEROSIE;

(* 3. Check landschap.dalbreede. a cross-section *)
(* cannot be wider than 94 cells. *)
IF LANDSCHAFT.DALBREDETE > 94 THEN LANDSCHAFT.DALBREDETE := 94;

IF KANT OR SEDIMENTATIE THEN LANDSCHAFT.DALBREDETE := 94;
XEREDDEMIN := TRUNC(XHID - LANDSCHAFT.DALBREDETE/2);
XEREDDEMAX := XEREDDEMIN + LANDSCHAFT.DALBREDETE;

(* 4. If erosion change relief from downstream to *)
(* upstream, (from ymax to ymin) *)
IF REROSIE THEN
BEGIN
PAD[17] := 1;
(* 4.1 Check if value of erosion is positive if not *)
(* then exit *)
IF REROSIE < 0 THEN GOTO 999;
(* 4.2 YSTOP is place where process stopped during *)
(* the preceding timestep *)
(* 4.3 If slope river < slope valley erode until *)
(* slope river = slope valley *)
WHILE (YERHANG < LANDSCHAFT.S) AND NOT AF DO
BEGIN
PAD[18] := 1;
(* 4.3.1 make AF = true; if nothing erodes leave *)
(* the loop. *)
(* UJI is a control variable; UJI = REROSIE *)
UJI := REROSIE;
AF := TRUE;

(* 4.3.2 Move along axis valley from YMIN to YMAX *)
FOR Y := YSTOP DOWNTO YMIN DO
BEGIN
(* 4.3.3 If relief[xmid,y] above slope line then *)
(* remove at that Y the cross section *)
(* (xmid,ymax) is steady point *)
SMIN := TRUNC(YERHANG-(YMAX-Y)/INMAX);

```



```

WHILE (VERHANG = LANDSCHAP.S) OR AF DO
BEGIN
PAD[35] := 1;
LUI := REROSIE;
FOR Y := YSTOP TO YMAX DO
BEGIN
ZETEENLAAGBLI;
END;
IF REROSIE <= LUI THEN GOTO 999;
YSTOP := YMIN;
END (* if sedimentatie *);
END (* while *);

999:   PAD[42] := 1;
(* 6. exit label
      *)
DUMEROSE := REROSIE;
IF DUMEROSE > 1E5 THEN FOUT := DOMERO;
(* 6.2 determine new slope of valley, determine
   difference between highest terrace and val-
   ley bottom
*)
LANDSCHAP.S := RELIEF[XMIN,YMIN].ZET - RELIEF[XMAX,YMAX].ZET;
LANDSCHAP.HOOGTE := RELIEF[XMIN,YMIN].ZET - RELIEF[XMAX,YMIN].ZET;
YSTOP := Y;
END (* block *);
END (* LINTER *);

(* 1. Open the files
OPEN('RELIEF1','RELIEF1.DAT',NEW);
REWRITE('RELIEF1');
OPEN('RELIEF2','RELIEF2.DAT',NEW);
REWRITE('RELIEF2');
OPEN('LIMTER','LIMTER.DAT',NEW);
OPEN('UITSTRATIG','UITSTRATIG.DAT',NEW);
OPEN('UITSTRATIG','STRATIG.DAT',NEW);
OPEN('GEOCHEM','GEOCHEM.DAT',NEW);
REWRITE('GEOCHEM');
OPEN('LOGBOEK','LOGBOEK.DAT',NEW);
REWRITE('LOGBOEK');
OPEN('UITFOUT','UITFOUT.DAT',NEW);
REWRITE('UITFOUT');
OPEN('UITSTRATIS','UITSTRATIS.DAT',NEW);
REWRITE('UITSTRATIS');
OPEN('GEOCHEMIS','GEOCHEMIS.DAT',NEW);

```

```

REWRITE(GEOCHEMIS);
OPEN('SINUS','SINUS.DAT',NEW);
REWRITE(SINUS);
ODDQ := 0; (* 2. Initialise variables
ODDINLAST := 0;
ODVORM := TRUE; (* 2.1 make OUDVORM is meander
CLACIAAL := Q;
GRENs := FALSE;
LANDSCHAP.S := 7;
DUNNY := TRUE;
SOMBRROSIE := 0;
TEXTILT := 0;
PI := 4*ARCTAN(1);
LANDSCHAP.HOOGTE := INTROGTE;
UIT1 := 0;
UIT2 := 0;
UIT3 := 0;
VERHANG := 10;
YSTOP := 1;
ODU := 0; (* 2.2 Make initial relief, with initial strati-
      *)
(* graphy of one
FOR Y := YMINTO YMAX DO
BEGIN
FOR X := XMIN TO 23 DO
BEGIN
RELIEF[X,Y].ZET := 2MID;
FOR K := 1 TO 10 DO
RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[K] := 1;
FOR K := 1 TO 10 DO
RELIEF[X,Y].GEOCHEM[K] := 1;
END;
FOR X := 24 TO 77 DO
BEGIN
RELIEF[X,Y].ZET := 2MID;
FOR K := 1 TO 10 DO
RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[K] := 1;
FOR K := 1 TO 10 DO
RELIEF[X,Y].GEOCHEM[K] := 1;
END;
FOR X := 78 TO XMAX DO
BEGIN
RELIEF[X,Y].ZET := 2MID;
FOR K := 1 TO 10 DO
RELIEF[X,Y].STRATIG[K] := 1;
FOR K := 1 TO 10 DO
RELIEF[X,Y].GEOCHEM[K] := 1;
END;
(* for *)
END (* Time loop. Time in thousand years (ky)
      *)
(* Repeat 1 loop until tijd=max
      (* Or until relief is too high or too low
      *)
Tijd := TMIN;
REPEAT
BEGIN

```

```

(* 3.1 Initial processes *)
BEGIN
  WRITELN(UITPOUT, FOUT, TILD);
  GRENs := TRUE;
END;
DMARKERO: WRITELN(UITPOUT, FOUT, TILD);
DMARSED: WRITELN(SINUS, TILD);
DUMERO: WRITELN(UITPOUT, FOUT, TILD);
OKAY: WRITELN(UITPOUT, FOUT, TILD);

(* 3.2 Calculate entity RIVER *)
FOR I := 1 TO 45 DO
  BEGIN
    PAD[I] := 0;
  END;
  (* 3.2 Calculate entity RIVER *)
  FLUSS: BEGIN
    (* 3.3 Determine tectonism *)
    OPHEFFING; (* 3.4 Decision rules *)
    IF TEKTONIEK AND EROSTE THEN INSLIJDING := TRUE;
    IF TEKTONIEK AND EROSTE AND RIVIER.MEANDER THEN INSLIJDING := TRUE;
    IF NOT TEKTONIEK AND EROSTE AND RIVIER.VERTILDER THEN
      BEGIN
        INSLIJDING := TRUE;
        KANT := TRUE;
      END;
    IF NOT TEKTONIEK AND EROSTE AND RIVIER.VERTILDER THEN KANT := TRUE;
    IF NOT TEKTONIEK AND EROSTE AND RIVIER.MEANDER THEN
      BEGIN
        INSLIJDING := TRUE;
        KANT := TRUE;
      END;
    IF NOT TEKTONIEK AND EROSTE AND RIVIER.VERTILDER THEN KANT := TRUE;
    IF NOT TEKTONIEK AND EROSTE AND RIVIER.MEANDER THEN DUMMY := TRUE;
    IF NOT TEKTONIEK AND EROSTE AND RIVIER.VERTILDER THEN DUMMY := TRUE;
    IF NOT TEKTONIEK AND EROSTE AND RIVIER.MEANDER THEN DUMMY := TRUE;
    END;
  END;
  (* 3.5 Change relief *)
  BLOK;
  (* 3.6 storing orders by write commands *)
  BEGIN
    WRITELN(UITPOUT, FOUT, TILD);
    GRENs := TRUE;
  END;
  ZETNAK;

```

(* 3.6.1 determine errors. Stop simulation if
(* ZETMAX or SETMIN, report error in error notify *)
(* file *)

CASE FOOT OF
SETMIN:
 BEGIN
 WRITELN(UITPOUT, FOUT, TILD);
 GRENs := TRUE;
 END;
 ZETNAK;

(* 3.6.2 write cross-section at y = 90 to RELIEF1 *)
(* On each line are 24 z-coordinates. four line is *)
(* one cross-section *)

Y := 90;
FOR X := XMIN TO 25 DO
 WRITE(RELIEF1, RELIEF[X, Y], ZET; 5);
WRITELN(RELIEF1);
FOR X := 26 TO XHLD DO
 WRITE(RELIEF1, RELIEF[X, Y], ZET; 5);
WRITELN(RELIEF1);
FOR X := XHLD + 1 TO 75 DO
 WRITE(RELIEF1, RELIEF[X, Y], ZET; 5);
WRITELN(RELIEF1);
FOR X := 76 TO MAX DO
 WRITE(RELIEF1, RELIEF[X, Y], ZET; 5);

```
WRITELN(RELIEF1);
```

```
(* 3.6.2.3 Write stratigraphy of cross-section *)
(* to UTISTRATIS. Each line contains the time *)
(* a z-coordinate, and the relative ages of the *)
(* sediments in the upper ten grid cells for each *)
(* z-coordinate, 100 lines is one cross-section *)
FOR X := XMIN TO XMAX DO
BEGIN
  Y := 4*TELLI;
  FOR X := 1 TO 25 DO
    WRITE(UTISTRATIS,Z:5:X:5,TLJD:5);
  END;
  BEGIN
    FOR TELL := 1 TO 10 DO
      BEGIN
        TEL3 := RELIEF(X,Y).STRATIG[TELL];
        WRITE(UTISTRATIS,TEL3:5);
      END;
      WRITELN(UTISTRATIS);
    END;
    FOR X := XMIN TO XMAX DO
    BEGIN
      TEL2 := 1 TO 10 DO
        BEGIN
          TEL3 := RELIEF(X,Y).ZET;
          WRITE(GEOCHEMIS,Z:5:X:5,TLJD:5);
        END;
        BEGIN
          TEL3 := RELIEF(X,Y).GEOCHEM[TELL];
          WRITE(GEOCHEMIS,TEL3:5);
        END;
        WRITELN(GEOCHEMIS);
      END;
    END;
  END; (* if uitmax *)
END; (* 3.6.3 If time is a multiple of UITMAX or if
      (* GRENs (error) than write relief to file and
      (* write stratigraphy to relief.
UIT2 := UIT2 + 1;
IF (UIT2 = UIT2MAX) OR GRENs THEN
BEGIN
  UIT2 := 0;
  FOR TELL := 1 TO 25 DO
BEGIN
  Y := 4*TELL;
  FOR X := XMIN TO 25 DO
    WRITE(RELIEF2,RELIEF[X,Y].ZET:5);
  END;
  BEGIN
    FOR X := 26 TO XMAX DO
      BEGIN
        TEL3 := RELIEF(X,Y).ZET;
        WRITELN(RELIEF2);
      END;
      BEGIN
        TEL3 := RELIEF(X,Y).STRATIG[TELL];
        WRITE(UTISTRATIS,X:5:ZET:5);
      END;
    END;
  END;
  BEGIN
    CASE TELL OF
      1: Y := 10;
      2: Y := 50;
      3: Y := 90;
    END;
  END; (* DUMMY always true
IF NOT DUMMY THEN
BEGIN
  FOR TELL := 1 TO 3 DO
    BEGIN
      FOR X := XMIN TO XMAX DO
        BEGIN
          Z := RELIEF[X,Y].ZET;
          WRITE(UTISTRATIS,X:5:ZET:5);
        END;
      END;
    END;
  END;
  BEGIN
    FOR X := XMIN TO XMAX DO
      BEGIN
        Z := RELIEF[X,Y].ZET;
        WRITE(UTISTRATIS,X:5:ZET:5);
      END;
    END;
  END;
```

```

        WRITE(UNITSTRATIG, TEL3:5);
        END;
        WRITEIN(UNITSTRATIG);
        END (* for *);
        END (* for *);
        END (* not dummy *);
        END (* if ui2max *);
        END (* time loop *);

(* 4 Go to the next timestep
*)
TJD := TJD + 1;
UNTIL (TJD = TMAX + 1) OR GREN;

(* 5. Close files
*)
CLOSE(RELIEF1);
CLOSE(RELIEF2);
CLOSE(UNITSTRATIG);
CLOSE(GEOCHEM1);
CLOSE(LOGBOOK);
CLOSE(UNITOUT);
CLOSE(UNITSTRATIS);
CLOSE(GROCHEM1);
CLOSE(SINUS);
CLOSE(SINUS);

END (* LIMTER *).

```